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ABSTRACT

This publication features articles on school climate. Among the various concerns are: 1) the complexities of the educational environment, 2) low cost school climate programs, 3) implementation of changes for effective climates, 4) the roles of principals, teachers, and students in the educational environment, and 5) test anxiety and creativity as outcomes of specific climates. Also included are descriptions of several Teacher Corps projects. (CJ)

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Unaccustomed as I am to . . .

Editorially Speaking . . .

The central topic for submissions to this issue has been "School Climate." It was the feeling of the California Network Board of Directors that this concept needs to be translated from the abstract to the empirical plane if projects are to document changes related to project interventions. We received some 36 papers related to the focus topic. The submissions were all excellent and the selection of those to be published was a difficult task. Enjoy!

This is the last issue of *The Networker* under the current Network contract. The Network has published four issues and has attempted to reflect on what was learned.

1. There seems to be sufficient interest to publish such a journal on at least a twice-a-year basis.
2. Submissions increased in volume to the point that with this issue a true juried journal is possible.
3. Communications with those who submitted articles and those who received *The Networker* indicate that a focus topic oriented issue is appropriate and preferable in terms of a future resource.

As Teacher Corps Networks, as we have known them, will cease to exist after July of this year, it is perhaps appropriate to make some comments about the nature of this innovation.

In reflecting upon my three-year experience in California as Executive Secretary and two years as a project director on the Board of the Plains Network, the following seems to be true.

1. Projects in general tend to see themselves as isolates and resist giving over time to state, regional and national efforts. The Network has functioned as an incentive mechanism to encourage projects to coordinate their attempts to impact state and regional educational policy. The coordinated actions of projects facilitated by Networks have resulted in the acquisition of influence, resources and cost-effective project staff development.
2. Networks have been seriously hampered by uncertain and changing funding by the National Program. Coordinated actions always represent a risk to the project. The amount of time a project will invest in support of Network planning and action is related to the probability of continuation of the Network.
3. Networking is a long-range process with productivity increasing geometrically after projects have worked together for several years. If Networks could have been sustained for the full five-year life of the Program 78 family, dramatic and significant contributions would have been made at the state and regional level. As it is, the Program 78 and 79 projects have had only a year to develop understandings and common goals. For most of that year it has been obvious that Networks would be discontinued. Such an affective environment is not a healthy one for what is already perceived as a risky process by project directors. The risk being that of the probability of return on an investment of staff time in developing coordinated network activities.

In memory of Networks it would be fair to say that they are indeed preferred over other technical assistance by a significant majority of projects. They have demonstrated effectiveness in producing quality documentation of what Teacher Corps is about. It would seem logical to continue such an innovation. It is interesting to note that Teacher Corps Networks received a curious response when requesting no additional cost extensions of their contract periods. The Networks were told that what they had been doing was technically of no value to the Federal Government. I submit that this may be true, that in fact because Networks are a powerful advocate of the projects and represent the focused power of the individual projects that the Federal Government's job of administering the individual projects was somewhat more difficult than in pre-Network times. Coordination and collaboration is time consuming and risky, and is by nature power-sharing. We've been required to develop projects which demonstrate and facilitate collaboration and coordination at the local project level. Why then does Washington take a step backward in the effort to establish some parity in power distribution within the National Program? I truly believe that while what we have accomplished may be of "no value to the Federal Government," it has indeed been "of value" to the Teacher Corps Projects who have "owned" the Networks.

¡Fuerza a los Proyectos!

J. R. W.

A Macrosociological Interpretation of Effective Climate

by Charles A. Reavis

The findings in two major studies on climate, one in business and one in education, mutually support each other and offer new insights into the complexities of organizational climate.

Twelve inner-city schools in London were involved in the education study. The major question studied was whether these schools had differential effects on pupil achievement, attendance, behavior and delinquency once intake differences in the entering student groups were controlled. Rutter and his associates (1979) found that the schools did produce differential effects, particularly in school behavior and academic achievement. The results were less clear for attendance and juvenile delinquency. A number of climate factors were found to be associated with more positive outcomes on the variables studied:

1. Academic emphasis—requiring and checking homework, teacher academic expectations for their students, display of student work in the school, frequent student use of library, and group planning of courses by teachers as opposed to each teacher doing his own planning.
2. Teacher actions—teacher interacting with the class as a whole (as opposed to getting bogged down with individuals), starting the class on time, ending on time.
3. Rewards and punishment—teacher taking a disciplinary (as opposed to a welfare) approach to misbehavior, having a school or department standard for infractions (as opposed to individual teachers having their own standards).
4. Student conditions—access to telephone, freedom to use the building during breaks, availability of hot drinks, school social outings, pupil willingness to approach a teacher about personal problems.
5. Responsibilities and participation—*proportion* of students holding office, participation in school meetings, keeping up with their own pencils, papers, books.
6. Staff organization—teachers planning together, adequate clerical help, school authorities checking on whether teachers gave homework and were punctual (usually an informal rather than a formal procedure), management decision-making style in which decisions were made at the senior staff level after consideration of views of the entire staff.

In addition to these concrete findings, one of the most intriguing parts of the report was the last chapter. Herein, the authors extrapolate from what the data show to what it might mean in a sociological context, i.e., a sociology of organizations. The authors note that the total effect of variety of factors influencing the outcome measures (attendance, behavior, achievement and delinquency) was much greater in combination than any of the factors considered individually and that a school ethos might be the explanation for this occurrence. The authors note further that other researchers have found a substantial effect on individual behavior exercised by group norms and that any relatively self-contained organization (such as a school) is likely to develop its own culture or pattern. They continue by sketching out the school conditions that may have established that culture in part in the schools having the most impact on the four variables:

1. General agreement among teachers about allowable behavior and punishment for deviant behavior.
2. General agreement that students can achieve and that teachers should set appropriate models (by their punctuality and by starting and ending the class on time).
3. An informal evaluation system whereby senior staff was aware that teachers were punctual and were assigning and marking homework.
4. School demonstration of care about teachers (providing adequate clerical help, access to telephone for students, hot drinks available, frequent school outings).
5. Shared view of pupil responsibility (large proportion of students holding office, students expected to keep up with pencils, books, supplies).

In closing their study, however, they note that they are not able to say why those factors were influential in differences in school effects, whereas others, just as plausible (for example, a more favorable teacher-student ratio or continuity of teachers from one year to the next), were not. Neither were they able to say how schools serving essentially similar student populations from essentially the same geographical area developed such different (and in the case of the lower scoring schools, less effective) school climates. For possible insight on these two questions we can look at the study on climate in an industrial setting.

Ouchi and Johnson (1978) had observed that when American companies locate in Japan, they have to adopt a Japanese-type management system: by contrast, when a Japanese company locates in America, it is able to continue the same management style. Upon further examination Ouchi and Johnson were able to characterize the two organizational types, Type A (American style) and Type Z (Japanese style). These are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Type A and Type Z Organization Characteristics

Type A (American)	Type Z (Japanese)
Short-term employment	Long-term employment
Individual decision making	Collective decision making
Individual responsibility	Individual responsibility
Frequent evaluation and promotion	Infrequent evaluation and promotion
Explicit, formalized evaluation	Implicit, informal evaluation
Specialized career paths	Nonspecialized career paths
Segmented concern for people	Holistic concern for people

It should be noted that although Ouchi and Johnson refer to the types as American style and Japanese style, they found both types to be represented in American industry.

In analyzing the two types they speculate that the key factor may be the rate of employee turnover (short-term employment vs. long-term employment). The high rate of turnover would require frequent evaluation and rather explicit evaluation (as opposed to relying on personal knowledge), would lead to specialization (so people could be easily replaced), which in turn would lead to specialized career paths and individual decision making (since others in different areas of the organization could hardly know enough about one's own specialized area in the organization to aid in the decision making). The high rate of turnover would also serve to limit the amount of personal concern since the rapid rate of turnover would not provide the time for deep personal ties to develop.

By contrast, the Type Z organization with its slower rate of turnover could choose to emphasize coordination between organizational units, rather than specialization within one of the organizational units. Career paths would tend to cut across specialties since an employee would be with the company long enough to learn his job well and be ready for a new challenge. Because of the personal relationships that can develop over time and the generality of career path, decision making would tend to be a collective, rather than an individual matter. Because of the generality of career paths and personal relationships that form over time, evaluation would tend to be informal and implicit.

Previous studies of theirs have shown that in Japan, turnover is low whereas in the U.S., it is high. Their further finding that both Type A and Type Z organizations functioned in this country whereas only Type Z was successful in Japan, led them to suspect that either micro conditions favoring both types of organization were in place in the U.S. or that the Type Z organization was more readily adaptable to a wider range of environments and therefore potentially "better." To test their theses, they selected two companies in the electronics industry representing Type A and Type Z organizations. The selections were made after an industry-wide survey was conducted. Both companies were organized at approximately the same time in communities experiencing rapid population growth and both had shown similar profit patterns in their early years. However, recently, the Type Z company had shown steady profits whereas Type A company had a widely fluctuating profit picture. Examination of company records revealed that the Z organization had come about by deliberate company policy since the foundation and, similarly, the A organization had

been a planned design. Interviews with executives at the two companies confirmed the two organizational types and disclosed one further difference between the two companies: executives in the Type A company tended to identify with their profession; whereas executives in Type Z tended to identify with their company.

We can now consider the similarities between the two organizational types and the "typical" organization found in today's schools. Table 2 shows that the typical school organization is neither pure Type A or Type Z, but a combination of the two. Some questions might be raised about including "Explicit, formal evaluation" as one of the characteristics of the typical school. While it must be admitted that evaluation of teaching is in a rather primitive state; nevertheless, when one considers the almost nonexistent evaluation of 10 years ago and contrasts this with the current typical requirements that principals must observe teachers, file a written evaluation and confer with the teacher about that evaluation, the difference is rather striking. A question may also be raised about placing "Segmented concern for people" in the typical school category. However, numerous studies and reports, not the least of which is Jersild's *When Teachers Face Themselves*, testify to the teacher's sense of isolation in his daily responsibilities.

Of significant importance according to the theory of Ouchi and Johnson is the widely observed finding that long-term employment is typical of the school setting. By nature, teachers are low riskers and are unlikely to move out of the profession, particularly in the current tight job market. A critical difference between schools and Type Z organizations is that long-term employment is likely to come about by deliberate company policy in industry whereas in schools this is likely to come about by default (when have you ever heard the slogan, "XYZ schools—a good place to work"?). This factor is so important because according to Ouchi and Johnson, it is from the factor of length of employment that all the other conditions follow.

Assuming, for the moment, the accuracy of the Ouchi and Johnson analysis and my classification of the typical school, using the Ouchi and Johnson organizational types, what light does the Ouchi and Johnson hypothesis shed on the question raised at the end of the Rutter, et al., study? You will recall that at the end of the study, Rutter, et al., confessed they were unable to say *why* the factors they found to be critical in school climate were critical or *how* these factors came to be developed in some schools and not others.

TABLE 2

A Comparison of Type A and Type Z
Organizational Patterns with the Typical School Pattern

Type A	Typical School	Type Z
Short-term employment	Long-term Employment (Z)	Long-term employment
Individual decision making	Individual decision making (A)	Collective decision making
Individual responsibility	Individual responsibility (A,Z)	Individual responsibility
Frequent evaluation and promotion	Infrequent evaluation and promotion (Z)	Infrequent evaluation and promotion
Explicit, formalized evaluation	Explicit, formal evaluation (A)	Implicit, informal evaluation
Specialized career paths	Nonspecialized career paths (Z)	Nonspecialized career paths
Segmented concern for people	Segmented concern for people (A)	Holistic concern for people

First, to the question of why some factors in Rutter, et al., emerged as significant while others, just as plausible, did not. In Table 3 we see that Rutter's unsuccessful schools resemble quite closely what I have described as the typical school pattern; by contrast his successful schools differ dramatically and resemble the Type Z organization. In searching for an answer to the *why* question (why is organization Type Z relatively more successful?), Ouchi and Johnson found macrosociology most illuminating. According to macrosociology, as societies modernize they become more urbanized and mobile. This mobility threatens the homogeniety of values and basic beliefs, which, in turn, threatens social control which underlies traditional societies.

Durkheim (1933) argued that modern urban environment will develop a new mechanism of social control. The only viable mechanism for this, he argues later, is the occupational group (Durkheim, 1951). If Durkheim were correct,

then we would expect the work place to, in many respects, resemble a stable social group that facilitates social control and provides nurturance for basic human values if society is to continue as we know it. We would further expect that the members of such a group would feel more secure. Of particular interest in this respect were Ouchi and Johnson's findings that executives in the Type A organization (1) were more fearful, (2) felt less in control of their own professional advancement, and (3) felt more loyalty to their professional group than their company than employees in Type Z. In other words, Type Z organization is in place (the why question) because it fulfills a basic need of society and has filled a void left by the demise of other, more traditional institutions of social control.

The other part of the *why* question (why are Type A organizations still in place in this country and still successful if Type Z is more effectively filling a social need?) may be hypothesized by considering the profitability of both companies studied by Ouchi and Johnson. While both companies had similar profitability pictures early in their history, Type Z company has experienced more profitability in recent years, leading Ouchi and Johnson to conclude it was more successful. If social trends continue as they currently are and have been over the last 30 years, according to macrosociology, one would expect profitability to continue to improve in Type Z and become more erractic in Type A. A similar projection may be made for school climate.

TABLE 3

A Comparison of Type A and Type Z Organizations, Typical Schools and the Unsuccessful and Successful Schools in the Rutter, et al., Study

Type A	Type Z	Typical Schools	Rutter's Unsuccessful Schools	Rutter's Successful Schools
Short-term employment	Long-term employment	Long-term employment (Z)	Long-term employment (Z)	Long-term employment (Z)
Individual decision making	Collective decision making	Individual decision making (A)	Individual decision making (A)	Collective decision making (Z)
Individual responsibility	Individual responsibility	Individual responsibility (A,Z)	Individual responsibility (A,Z)	Individual responsibility (A,Z)
Frequent evaluation and promotion	Infrequent evaluation and promotion	Infrequent evaluation and promotion (Z)	Infrequent evaluation and promotion (Z)	Infrequent evaluation and promotion (Z)
Explicit, formalized evaluation	Implicit, informal evaluation	Explicit, formal evaluation (A)	Explicit, formal evaluation (A)	Implicit, informal evaluation (Z)
Specialized career paths	Nonspecialized career paths	Nonspecialized career paths (Z)	Nonspecialized career paths (Z)	Nonspecialized career paths (Z)
Segmented concern for people	Holistic concern for people	Segmented concern for people (A)	Segmented concern for people (A)	Holistic concern for people (Z)

With respect to the *how* questions (how did schools develop rather different ways of accomplishing similar tasks with similar students?), our argument becomes less cogent. The two companies in Ouchi and Johnson's study developed different organizations quite deliberately as revealed by early company memoranda, policy decisions and so forth. While Rutter, et al., have not attempted to trace the historical development of the unique climate of the successful schools in their study, it seems less likely that the climates were the result of a deliberate decision. For example, one of the key organizational factors, long-term employment, was the result of planned policy in the Type Z company, whereas in the schools it more likely occurred by happenstance and was equally true of successful and unsuccessful schools (although we have no direct evidence on this from the Rutter, et al., study). The assertion that the Type Z company planned for long-term employment still begs the *why* question (why did management plan for long-term employment, really in opposition to the prevailing company practices at the time?).

The ultimate answer may be found in emerging political leadership theory. In attempting to settle one of the main issues in leadership theory—whether events make the leader or whether the leader creates the event, Burns (1978) opts for the position that the leader in dialogue with his constituents, and tapping into their basic, largely unarticulated needs, forges policies that speak to these needs and the emerging economic, political and social events. We may

hypothesize, then, that management in Type Z companies had, by wisdom or happy accident, translated Durkeim's theories into practical company policy.

The strength of a theory may be measured in terms of its ability to utilize past events and largely accepted theories to shape interpretations of current data and project future consequences. Durkeim's theories about the effect of urbanization and mobility have by and large occurred. His hypothesis that the work place might emerge as the new center of social values and stability would seem to explain both the success of the Type Z organization studied by Ouchi and Johnson and the successful schools studied by Rutter, et al. The trends in profitability in the Type Z company in both America and Japan (there are not comparable trends in the Rutter, et al., study) suggest that the future lies with the Type Z company.

Even though Rutter, et al., found some schools relatively more successful, results from Ouchi and Johnson suggest changes that might make the schools even more successful. A primary suggestion would be that school climates stress as a positive factor and a matter of policy, the desirability of long-term employment. This could be accomplished by both formal and informal means, but if the Ouchi and Johnson analysis is correct, this may be the critical factor. In addition, some rotation of responsibilities might be in order so that those participating in collective decision making have more of an experiential base in making those decisions. Rutter, et al., found in their successful schools that decisions were made by executive staff with substantial input by regular staff (as reported by regular staff). The implication here is that there is still room for progress in this dimension. A third suggestion would be that school leaders commit more of their energy toward developing a concern for the whole person among members of the teaching staff. This means coming to know the members of the staff themselves and structuring opportunities for staff members to know each other. These changes would move Rutter's successful schools more toward the Ouchi and Johnson Type Z organization and more in line with macrosociology projections of societal needs.

In summary, then, what would the ideal school organization (and resultant climate) look like? It would encourage and stress the benefits of long-term employment as a positive value; it would provide for increased opportunities for collective decision making based on rotation of responsibilities; there would be infrequent evaluation and promotion,

TABLE 4

A Comparison of Type Z Organizations, Rutter's Successful Schools and Needed Areas of Emphasis

Type Z Organizations	Rutter's Successful Schools	Needed Areas of Emphasis
Long-term employment	Long-term employment, but more by default than by a planned policy decision	Long-term employment promoted and valued as policy matter
Collective decision making	Collective decision making on curriculum matters. Teachers feel senior staff listen to them before making policy decisions. School-wide standards for discipline, punishment	Collective decision making on broader school issues based on knowledge as a result of rotated responsibilities
Individual responsibility	No information from the Rutter study, but this would appear to be so	
Infrequent evaluation and promotion. Implicit, informal evaluation	Senior staff are "aware of" teacher punctuality and assigning and checking homework	
Nonspecialized career paths	No information from the Rutter study, but this would appear to be so	
Holistic concern for people	Staff and students go on outings, students feel they can approach teachers with problems at any time	Concern for faculty exhibited by senior staff and by faculty for one another. Opportunities for developing this promoted by policy decisions

and it would be on an implicit, informal basis; career paths would remain about the same as they currently are; and schools would do much more to support a holistic concern for each other among staff members. Table 4 provides a measure of where we are, using Rutter's successful schools as an example of the best that is currently available, and where we need to go. Such changes in school climate hold the promise of meeting basic, largely unarticulated needs of an urban, mobile society, producing measurable, significant improvements in pupil achievement and behavior and, to a lesser extent, improvements in attendance and delinquency.

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Low-Cost Successful School Climate Program

by Kathleen Yeates

The recognition of the importance of the nebulous notion of a positive School Climate is gaining wide acceptance as a worthy goal to attain. Recently, numerous studies, including the Rand Study, Kettering Foundation Studies, supporting research in the development of California's Assembly Bill 65, School Improvement, and others, have included findings on School Climate issues and their effects on the development of a total school program. Much is believed to be brought about by a positive environment in the school so the difficult task of designing objective tools to measure affective as well as cognitive indicators of a positive school climate are being developed and tested.

The following is a description of a School Climate program which can be implemented at little cost to a school and have a high rate of effectiveness and success. The initial impetus for this program model was initiated in State Legislation in 1972 which created a program entitled Youth Feedback. Various schools in California may still conduct modified components of the model under a variety of names such as Youth Feedback, Human Relations Days, MAY (Me and You) Day, Conflict Management Program, and others. The effectiveness of the program is diminished when it is presented on a fragmented rather than comprehensive way, as is the case in too many educational programs today. Research, such as found in The Preparatory Study for Staff Development by Bruce Joyce, Bob Bush and Dave Marsh, would support this fact.

Setting Up the Structure

In general this program gives individuals from the school community of varying roles and of varying ages the opportunity to share personal interests and concerns about issues they believe would improve their school. After concerns have been identified, a committee designates appropriate persons or groups to take action toward improving the climate and environment of the school for everyone.

Involvement from all contributing populations in the school community is essential for ensuring success and maximizing the potential for long-range and widespread impact. Initial steps involve the formation of a "coordinating committee" (it may be called by another name). Size of the committee may vary and often size has an effect on its effectiveness. It is encouraged that membership on the coordinating committee include approximately two members from each of the following roles: school board members, superintendent and/or principal, other school administrators, teachers, students, parents, community members, agency representatives, and other appropriate persons. Before this group convenes it is important that they clearly understand their task, the goals of the program and general expectations. To promote program success, initial meetings should include structured team building and communication activities. An excellent source for suggestions is University Associates, Pfiefer and Jones Structured Experience handouts. Once the coordinating committee is organized one of their initial tasks is educating other people and making them aware of program aspects and processes.

Special days are the core aspect of this program. As was mentioned, they may be called a variety of names but for the purpose of this article they will be referred to as School Climate Days. Generally the more days allotted to this program, the more successful it will be. A monthly School Climate Day and a monthly Coordinating Council Committee meeting is ideal.

Preparing for School Climate Days

A list of individuals who will be *invited* to participate in a School Climate Day needs to be prepared. A random sampling of approximately 50 students, depending upon the size of the student body, the size of the site selected for the event and the age of students participating (the younger, the fewer), needs to be identified and those individuals invited to participate. It is important that the students selected represent a cross-section of the student body with no particular emphasis on any one group—the goody-goodies or the bady-badies. One possible method is actually counting down the school attendance record and selecting every fifth or tenth student, again depending on student body size, and developing a list of 50 that way. Initial School Climate Days may allow students to self-select to participate but this is not as successful and may affect the reputation of the program if too many of one stereotype participate. The day should be viewed as an opportunity and not as a punishment or a reward. A random sampling of teachers, staff members, including support staff, administrators, parents, community persons, and agency representatives should also be selected. The number of adult

individuals should be fewer than the number of student participants.

Cautions

A parent of any students selected may impede that student's ability to function freely during the day's activities, and vice versa. The same may be the case with teachers and administrators or community members. Another situation that may affect the experience for others may be a particularly negative individual who might affect the group's behavior. There are other possibilities which can affect the day's proceedings.

Individuals selected are invited to participate on a voluntary basis and should not be forced to attend. They need, however, to accept or decline the invitation so that others may be invited and planners can anticipate a final group size.

It is beneficial if the location selected for the event is a site away from the school campus. It might be another school, a church, a bank or another public building meeting room that could be acquired for no or little cost and that is geographically not too great a distance to keep transportation costs low also. It is important that the environment of the site be conducive to interaction such as movable chairs, carpeting, quiet, appropriate temperature, size, and so on. The activity may be held at the school site but needs to be identified as "special." Having the event take place at a different site than the school helps enhance the attitude of participants and sets this activity apart from other school functions.

In addition to transportation arrangements, arrangements also need to be made for refreshments, if determined appropriate, and lunch. Participants can be requested to bring a bag lunch or perhaps the school could provide a bag lunch. In some cases, fast food chains, such as MacDonald's, have been willing to provide lunches as a promotional activity. Event facilitators may or may not structure an activity during lunch.

A School Climate Day may be condensed into a morning or afternoon activity. The ideal situation is for the event to take place in approximately the same time as a class day. Bus may leave from school after all the busses arrive and return before student catches bus at the end of the day.

The School Climate Day

The main goals of the School Climate Day are:

A. To promote communication and to break possible barriers between and among various ages, roles, cliques, and other identifiable obstacles to interaction.

B. To provide opportunities for participants to get to know new persons or old acquaintances better, which will promote positive feelings and understanding.

C. To identify areas of concern felt by the participants which they believe negatively affect the climate of the school.

D. To bring together individuals representing the various populations of the school community, to enhance relationships and understanding, and to begin a cooperative planning process for positive school change collectively.

There may also be other possible goals for this program that a specific site would wish to address.

Participants arrive on site in the morning and begin by getting to know each other as people. The event facilitator(s) spends the beginning of the event providing structured activities for the group to get acquainted—to break down role, clique and age barriers and to freely discuss and communicate with each other. There is a great variety of possible strategies to use for the morning or beginning agenda.

Many of the morning ice breakers should give people structured ways of interacting with people they don't know. Activities that divided the group by astrological birth signs (Gemini, Cancer, Leo, etc.), by position in their family (oldest, middle, baby or only), by where they were born, by sex, by birth months, by interest in a variety of activities, or by any of a variety of possible ways. Once divided, people can brainstorm positive attributes of their groups or advantages to their selected section, then prioritize the brainstormed list and read it aloud to the group. The structure of this type of activity is a model for the closing activity. Event facilitators need to be creative and plan appropriate activities. There are a wide range of possible resources which describe ice-breaker activities, including University Associates Facilitators Handbook, Values Clarification activity books, and other training program manuals. After people have had the opportunity to mix and are feeling comfortable, activities which focus on communication skills and activities which build self-esteem should be conducted. There are many possible sources for these kinds of activities as well.

The afternoon or last part of the event focuses on small mixed group brainstorming, prioritizing and reporting to the group as a whole the issues participants believe would make their school "a better place." (Guidelines for brainstorming should first be explained and discussed.) After small groups have read their top issues (five approximately), the entire group prioritizes the issues mentioned on all the small groups' priority lists. The event should be structured by the event

facilitator. A possible warm-up to the activities would be having the group follow a modified version and brainstorm and report lists from a topic such as "How would you create a better bathtub?" This topic is a natural lead into—"How would you create a better school?"

The School Climate Day is summarized and a closing activity and a feedback sheet for evaluation purposes concludes the day. The main costs of the event would be incurred by teacher release money for substitutes for those staff members who attend, transportation to the site for participants, site rental—if there is a fee, materials needed at the actual workshop, and meal expense—if there is a cost for lunch. Monies from programs such as AB 65, School Improvement, and AB 551, Staff Development, can be used for such days.

The prioritized list of concerns is then presented to the coordinating committee by a person or persons who attended the School Climate Day. It is helpful if the coordinating committee meets right after the event, that evening or the next day. The committee then suggests possible solution strategies to each issue. There may be a simple solution that can easily be accomplished, such as relocating on campus or by additional trash containers to help with the issue of a litter problem, to a more complex issue such as the need for a new stadium. Whatever the issue, members of the coordinating committee and the committees they establish or individuals to whom they assign a task, should be involved in the solution strategy.

Solution strategies should be viewed as educational strategies in themselves which involve students and help communication and school climate issues.

Follow-up

A report or some means of communication should be distributed to all the participants shortly after the School Climate Day they attend, once solution strategies have begun.

Additional appropriate follow-up may be necessary.

This program gives the clients of the school community a chance to give their opinions, hear other people's opinions, and participate in activities which have a direct effect on the environment in which they spend a large portion of their day.

In schools where this program is successful, it is reported that vandalism drops, attendance increases, racial problems are minimal, student-staff relationships increase, and other positive effects.

For such a low-cost and relatively simple process, this program is extremely successful in enhancing the climate of any school.

Precision Change Implementation Systems

by Christine Y. O'Connell and Robert C. West

A dilemma that is shared by many administrators, teachers, parents and consultants is "how to promote needed changes within school systems." Procedures for adoption of innovations, within schools, have been borrowed from agriculture (Havelock, 1971), business (Likert, 1961; Tannenbaum, 1968) and large government operations (Triandis, 1966) for some time. Some forms of organizational development are utilized quite effectively by top line school administrators (Barraclough, 1978). In other instances teachers, principals or outsiders may need to provide the impetus for innovation. The effectiveness of the change attempts has a significant impact on the climate of the individual school. Teachers and administrators can be frustrated by the lack of needed revisions or by the imposition of too many modifications without sufficient time. Chaos can result from a lack of coordination and planning. Stagnation and low morale can be the end product of unwillingness to make responsive decisions relative to environmental forces, constraints and staff-perceived criteria of effectiveness. The dilemma is how to facilitate the needed changes in a smooth and efficient manner (Hale, 1978).

In an attempt to enable change to occur more efficiently and effectively, we have borrowed some ideas from the force field analysis procedure derived from early studies of innovation and adoption of new ideas (Lewin, 1939). The result of our efforts is a precise and systematic procedure for analyzing alternative change strategies. We have developed a refinement of the force field process which enables the user to be guided through an evaluation of the context of the implementation variables, the who, what, why, when, and how of change decision making.

The basic steps of force field analysis are to (1) identify the goal; (2) list facilitating and restraining forces; (3) rank order the facilitating and restraining forces; (4) pinpoint one facilitating and restraining force; (5) develop an action plan utilizing facilitating forces; (6) identify the evaluative criteria (how you will know your goal is met); and (7) implement. Common facilitating and restraining forces have been presented in Table I, The Force Field Analyzer. After evaluating many change efforts, it has become obvious to us that certain key elements usually serve as either barriers or facilitators to change. Time, money, habit patterns, other demands and values are typical examples. In order to make the force field analysis process more systematic, these common elements are presented as a part of one decision-

TABLE I

Precision Change Implementation System

Force Field Analyzer [1]

PROBLEM: To implement mainstreaming in one school district.	
WHY?	**Statement of Rationale of Need for Change**
☐ philosophical ☐ economical ☐ legal ☐ political ☐ consumer demand ☐ advisory suggestion ☐ prevention	*P.L. 94-142* *Parents* *Handicapped children should be educated in the most appropriate and least restrictive environments.*

(continued)

TABLE I *(continued)*

WHAT?	+ (Facilitative Forces)	− (Restraining Forces)
☐ administrative attitudes		*Reorganization*
☐ administrative competencies		*Oftentimes lack of special education preparation*
☐ communication (formal systems)		*Lack of prior communication between regular and special education*
☐ communication (informal systems)		
☐ consumer groups	*Parents, students, some teachers*	
☐ cultural bases		*Cultural attitude towards deviancy—segregate*
☐ data (needs assessment)		
☐ data (other)		
☐ environmental influences	*Sect. 504, Voc. Rehab. Act—equal opportunity for handicapped*	*Architectural barriers*
☐ equipment		
☐ individual reward systems		
☐ legal bases	*P.L. 94-142* *(information available to indicate both support and restraint)*	
☐ literature		
☐ materials	*New secondary reduced reading levels, activity, approvals*	
☐ monetary	*Provided P.L. 94-142, Title VI-B flow through*	
☐ outside agencies		
☐ other activities		*Other major change to school*
☐ personnel—attitudes		*Teachers: I don't want to, it's easier just to teach "normal" students.*
☐ personnel—competencies		
☐ publicity		
☐ readiness for change		*May need to create dissatisfaction*
☐ significant others (parents)	*Parents court cases*	
☐ structural		
☐ time		*Too much preparation, possible neglect of other students*

WHO?	+ (Facilitative Forces)	− (Restraining Forces)
Who will be affected?		
☐ direct service provider		
☐ administrators		
☐ service recipients		
☐ significant others		
☐ ancillary personnel		
☐ other		
Values Analysis	(Profile a representative or targeted individual)	
☐ home, family		
☐ friends		
☐ community, organizations		

[1] Developed by Christine Y. O'Connell, Ph.D., and Robert C. West, M.A.
Italicized print refers to completion of the grid for a mainstreaming example.

making mode. The example which follows depicts how to utilize this system in implementation of mainstreaming. With this example we have attempted to depict some of the common facilitators and barriers to mainstreaming. If you wish to utilize this as an approach to mainstreaming, we suggest you rank order and include only those items relevant to your individual situation.

The force field analyzer can be completed through a variety of activities including (1) evaluator's perception; (2) interviews; (3) sociometrics, (4) behavioral observation; (5) needs assessment; (6) review of existing data; (7) discussion with peers; (8) literature reviews: (9) surveys; (10) time-activity analysis, (11) technical assistance from outside sources; and (12) consensus force field evaluation.

Mainstreaming Example

Once the "what" or the facilitating and restraining activities and conditions have been identified, it is important to then look at variables related to the personnel involved. Again, many different strategies may be utilized. To compile information about the people involved in the change strategy, it is often useful to focus on their interests, hobbies and activities as mentioned in their informal conversations. Once the values of targeted individuals have been identified, then a value sharing procedure can be utilized to enhance communication and common interest action patterns among colleagues. It may be that one must deliberately behave in a manner designed to effect the desired change by complementing paralleling or coinciding values held by decision makers or direct service providers. This may involve capitalizing upon common but non-related values in order to establish the rapport necessary to achieve the desired impact. An example of value analysis and development of a hypothetical principal relevant to mainstreaming follows:

Who: Administrator (Principal)

	MAINSTREAMING VALUES	
	Plus	**Minus**
H & F	1. Family togetherness (integration).	
Friends	2. Consider principal innovative.	Friends are typically traditional service delivery oriented.
Comm., Org.	3. Member of community service org./ officer in professional org.	Professional organization has not "endorsed" mainstreaming.
Work	4. Students work well at achievable tasks.	Don't coddle unproductive students.
Money	5. Normalization leads to greater personal and financial independence.	The average student may be "shortchanged" by IEPs only for mainstreamed handicapped students.
Hobbies	6. Reading professional literature.	
Leisure/Rec.	7. While an undergraduate, was a camp counselor at C.P. summer camp—good experience.	Some mainstreamed E.D./ disadvantaged students do not make "good" use of this time.
Aesthetic	8.	
Religious	9. One must provide for those in need.	
Humanitarian	10. Believes in promoting betterment for all.	Must be realistic—non-utopian.
Materialistic	11. One needs adequate materials.	Can't be everything to everyone.

An examination of the above analysis suggests interactions with, and feedback to, the principal regarding mainstreaming in several value areas. As given, the hypothetical principal holds a number of values that could be included in communications in a manner to enhance acceptance development of systematic integration. Emphasis would be placed on aspects of mainstreaming highlighted by concepts, behavior and beliefs associated with:

- Integration of children as in a family;
- Innovation of challenging and beneficial programs;

- Leadership in professional association;
- Individualized student work assignments will result in achievement and positive attitudes toward school and work;
- Students will be better prepared to participate in society and contribute financially in return;
- Articles on mainstreaming found in journals read,
- The holistic view of the handicapped child that goes beyond academics;
- Promoting the upgrading and betterment for all with satisfactory or better materials and supplies while not going to excess.

Two activities related to the analysis of values may also be crucial to implementing the desired changes. These activities include an analysis of procedures used by the targeted individuals and an analysis of the person who can most effectively structure or suggest the desired changes. For example, if a principal often mentions suggestions and actions of his or her colleagues when implementing changes, then it may be useful to (1) feed back to the principal information concerning similar changes being implemented by colleagues, and (2) have suggestions for change come from his administrative colleagues. If particular colleagues can be identified as key communicators with a principal or as people who share common interests, these colleagues may be the most effective change agents.

Once the issues of why, what, and who have been addressed, then the procedural question of "how" becomes the central concern. For mainstreaming, it is quite possible that all ten items from the Force Field Analyzer may be utilized. It is still helpful, however, to rank order these activities.

The Who-What Strategies

After data have been collected on facilitative and restraining forces, then these data should be summarized in terms of relevant issues. The Who-What Strategies is designed for that purpose (see Table II). The mainstreaming example is portrayed in italics in Table II.

TABLE II

Who–What Strategizer

Who Will Be Impacted?	Degree of Resistance	Relevant Value Analysis Information	Relevant Procedure Analysis Information	Who Will Implement?	What Will Be Implemented?	How?
Principal	Moderate	Integration of children as a family Innovative leadership Individualized instruction Articles useful of some materials	Suggestions, adoptions by administrative peers	Administrative colleagues	New main-streaming model	Title VI-B inservice and demonstration grant monies

The final step in systematic planning for change is the development of a time line and criteria for the implementation strategies. Table III presents the Target Action Plan for mainstreaming.

As the mainstreaming example depicts, the target action plan lays out the criteria and time lines for the primary activity designated by the force field analysis. In complex issues, implementation is likely to be multifaceted, and it may be necessary to implement a series of target action plans. In the mainstreaming example cited, the next target action plan in the series might focus on designing and implementing a successful mainstreaming pilot. At that point the targeted individual may expand to include key faculty members who are enthusiastic about mainstreaming.

Schools are successful to the degree that they meet both the stated and unstated objectives of consumers and service providers within their individual environments. One of the oftentimes unstated objectives of schools is to respond to the need to update procedures and techniques as is necessary to further the knowledge base of students. Implementing changes, however, is a complex task which can result in frustration due to apparent lack of progress in

TABLE III

Target Action Plan

OBJECTIVE: To implement mainstreaming appropriately within the school.			
Target Individual	Strategy	Criteria Measure	Time Line
Principal	Focus on adoption by valued colleagues	School will change/upgrade mainstreaming policies	1. Informal discussions by colleagues, Sept. 1979 2. Invitation to visit colleagues' progress, Oct. 1979 3. Colleagues will informally discuss related mainstreaming articles, Oct.-Nov. 1979 4. Teachers will discuss mainstreaming models of colleagues, Nov.-Dec. 1979 5. Resource teacher will ask for change in policy, Dec. 1979 6. Implementation of pilot change, Jan. 1980

problem resolution. Many forces impinging upon schools facilitate the retention of previous habit patterns. The system presented and the mainstreaming example have been provided as a model for the promotion of a healthier school climate through the facilitation of essential changes. Such a system may require more initial planning; however, this initial planning can save time in implementation later because the procedures used are systematic. This systemization results in planned changes within a planned context and reduces the problem of contradictory change procedures. The result is better utilization of the planning time and faster implementation of essential change. A corollary is often greater staff and student satisfaction and a working-learning environment that is responsive to student, teacher, administrative and community needs.

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It's Not My Job

by Jon I. Young and James R. Miller

While visiting in one of the local high schools early this fall, I was walking down the hall when I happened to overhear two teachers discussing a policy change in the school district that had been announced that day in the faculty meeting. This particular change was designed to encourage teachers and students to become more involved in the planning and implementation of the educational procedures of the high school. Most of the central administration considered the change as a positive step toward recognizing the valuable perspective of the classroom teacher and the various student groups. I was, therefore, a bit taken back by the reaction I overheard. Both teachers were obviously opposed to the change and the tone of the conversation could be summarized when one of the teachers exclaimed, "I just won't do it and no one can make me do it because it is not a part of my job!"

Now I am sure that this particular exclamation by a teacher was not the first time it had been uttered, nor will it be the last. It is fairly common for most of us to balk against new directives that we think go beyond the scope of our particular responsibilities. However, the teacher's expression caused me to reflect on our responsibilities as educators and how one defines the limits and expectations of these responsibilities. The particular issue under discussion by the two teachers is critical to the successful management of any educational institution. Yet, here were two teachers that were opposed to "increasing" their respective responsibilities to improve the general climate and environment for learning in the high school. I was troubled by the fact that these teachers did not see a personal responsibility in setting the school climate and also by the concern that it is generally unknown whose responsibility it really is to develop a positive school climate.

I am sure that part of this lack of willingness to become more involved in new or different responsibilities is a reaction to the recent emphasis on accountability in our educational institutions. School personnel fear that interest in making policy decisions might be construed as responsibility and they therefore would become accountable, not only for successful activities but also for failures. In short, there appears to be a tendency toward retrenchment among school personnel in an effort to minimize their respective roles in the educational process and therefore reduce the likelihood that they will be held accountable for any particular aspect of the educational process.

One must recognize that the ability to minimize one's own responsibilities in terms of visibility can be most easily accomplished by the classroom teacher. The school principal finds the process a little more difficult but not nearly as difficult as the superintendent. It is a normal human reaction for people to be reticent to admit that what they are doing is not as successful as could be expected. William Glasser indicates that the reason for this phenomenon is that failure calls into question an individual's competence—an extremely sensitive area for us all. If we can show that the cause of the failure was not our responsibility, our sense of competence can remain intact.

The intent of this article is to examine the current expected responsibilities of the public school teacher and principal in terms of establishing positive school climates for learning.

In 1969, William Glasser published his controversial book *Schools Without Failure*. Although many educators may disagree with much of what was written in the book, one concept that Glasser developed has had acceptance in the educational community. This is the concept that school environments have a major effect on student learning achievement. Glasser argues that often schools provide negative environments for students and then become concerned when students indicate that school is not a good place to spend time. In the extreme we find students who are so discouraged with school that they are merely putting in the necessary time to get out. The question that must be asked at this point is how do we change school climates from a negative one to a positive one? Who is responsible, ultimately, for this change? The principal? The teachers? The students?

The Principal

There is surprising little information on the responsibility of the principal in establishing positive school climates and even less on the responsibility of teachers. Sa'ad and Hamm (1977) describe most school climates as existing along a continuum between authoritarianism and anarchy. The authoritarian structure exists wherever the constraints of the society (school) deny all the members some decision-making

potential. This situation is most likely to occur whenever the personality of the principal is dictatorial or if the principal is under severe pressure from the central administration or community to conform to some set of expectations.

The inherent danger in this type of school management is that the principal becomes more interested in the mechanics of management than in promoting sound educational practices.

The opposite end of the continuum is characterized by anarchy. In this situation the principal exercises no leadership function and permits the individual members of the faculty to engage in whatever activities they would feel appropriate. Under the former condition, creativity and innovation are severely restricted. Under the latter condition, creativity and innovation are squandered.

Boocock (1972) reports that data from the National Principalship Study indicates that the principal has virtually no influence on teacher behavior except in regard to the teacher's morale. Similarly, the principal has little influence on student performance except through his relationship with the teachers who have a direct influence on the students. It is little wonder then that the principal might remain unnoticed unless there is a problem in the school. The role of the principal in establishing and maintaining an appropriate school climate is that of a facilitator and mediator by developing positive interpersonal relationships with teachers so that they develop confidence in the principal's leadership ability.

Sa'ad and Hamm (1977) conclude that the principal can be most effective in this process by fostering cohesiveness among teachers, providing feedback in problem areas and providing continuity for teachers and students from year to year. This process argues against the "super principal" who moves from school to school solving problems and moving on to other problems. Developing cohesiveness and continuity require time and association.

The role of the principal is further complicated because he is required to not only serve as a facilitator, but also as an evaluator. This dual role compromises the principal's effectiveness in either capacity. Teachers never fully recognize, in their interactions with the principal, which role is in effect. In fact, it is often difficult for the principal to separate the two roles. Licata (1975) suggests that because of this dual role, it may be all but impossible for the principal to develop positive trusting relationships with some of the teaching staff. Those teachers most affected are those who feel the least competent with their teaching roles and are constantly guarding against any indiscretions that could be used "against" them in a personal evaluation.

The Teacher

The classroom teacher becomes the pivotal influence in the development of a positive school climate not only because of the direct function of teaching in the school, but also because of his/her indirect influence on students. In an ideal school, communication between all concerned groups would be manifest. Figure 1 illustrates this interaction.

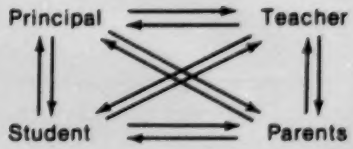

Figure 1

In many schools, however, the interaction is typically illustrated by arrows in Figure 2.

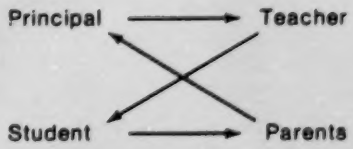

Figure 2

Although Figure 2 may provide a more accurate description of the interaction patterns of individuals, teachers and teacher groups have a tremendous effect on the behavior of the principal. Teachers form the transitional effect between what the administration wishes to accomplish and what is accomplished. The effectiveness of the decisions made by the principal to improve the school climate will depend on the support of the teachers in implementing the changes. If the teachers see the changes as "not my job," then the changes will not occur. Boocock (1972) points out that teachers really have very little control over a myriad of variables that affect their jobs, but they do have control over a number of decisions that are too often made on the basis of expediency rather than to promote learning. These decisions include grading, class assignment of students and materials to be used. Similarly, teachers have an ambiguous relationship with the principal because of his dual role; and finally, the teachers reward system rarely includes a reward for improving school climate.

Goodlad (1976) reports that there is a growing concern within the public sector that schools are impossible to change from internal pressure and therefore only external pressure will cause any change. This condition is, in part, the result of a lack of setting goal priorities by school personnel and the measurement of success/failure in the goals identified.

Glasser (1969) argues that for individual motivation to occur, goals must be established and individuals must be committed to the goal. He suggests that at the beginning of the year teachers and administrators meet together and discuss their major concerns. This discussion should be channeled in the direction of soliciting major areas of identified concerns and solutions to these selected problems. Assignments should then be made to groups of teachers and administrators, depending on interest and talent to develop resolutions to the problems. In this fashion, the solutions to problems become the specific job of certain individuals and when the solution is identified, the implementation becomes the responsibility of everyone.

Gillett (1973) identifies three major factors that contribute directly to the influence teachers have in the development of positive school climates. He identifies the first as a teacher attitude toward traditions. Many current school policies are assumed appropriate simply because that is the way it has been done for years. These traditional attitudes and beliefs need to be reassessed periodically and changed if there is no educational justification for continuation.

The second major factor in teacher role involves an attitude about the value of the classroom teacher. Moeller (1968) suggests that in order to raise the value of teachers, one of two options are available: (1) informal faculty peer groups; and (2) teacher professionalism that focuses on obtaining a greater degree of control over educational decisions.

The third factor is reflected in the element of trust. This trust must develop between teachers and administrators. The development of clearing boards to publicize effective teaching and management techniques via in-district workshops is an example of facilitating this developing trust. Effective education can only occur when all the forces in the educational system work together for the improvement of the student learning and development.

The Students

With the application of civil rights to student educational concerns, students have been demanding more access to the decision-making process in the schools. Certainly, they are capable of participating in many of the decisions currently being made without them. Glasser (1969) suggests that this is one of the roles that teachers can effectively play in relation to the students. By providing a forum for the discussion of educational concerns, teachers will not only allow students to make contributions to the educational climate, but at the same time they will be teaching them responsibility and the value of cooperation. It is becoming increasingly apparent to teachers and principals that students not only constitute the majority of the school population, but they are also the clients for whom the educational system was developed. There will continue to be increasing pressure from student groups for more meaningful involvement in this process (Boocock, 1972).

Conclusion

"School climate is now a national legislative and professional concern" (Teacher Corps, 1978). Whether changes in schools are legislated or evolve, the major factor of successful implementation resides in the relationship between principals, teachers and students. Unless this positive relationship can be established and maintained, then positive school climates will continue to be a dream for the future. The attitude that "it isn't my job" has never resulted in public support of the schools—every parent knows that the litmus test of school climate is whether his/her child comes home with a smile or a frown.

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School Climate and the Person of the Teacher

by Judith E. Dobson and Russell L. Dobson

Traditionally, the major thrust in teacher effectiveness research has been an emphasis on the teaching-learning process. Basically, this research includes studies concerned with various instructional methodologies and pupil achievement (Russell & Fea, 1963; Good, Biddle, & Brophy, 1975; Fisher, Mariave, & Filby, 1979) teacher characteristics and teaching effectiveness (Getzels & Jackson, 1963; Raskow, Airasian, & Madaus, 1978) and teacher behaviors as related to pupil achievement (Withall & Lewis, 1963; Rosenshine, 1976; Good, 1979). Research in the area of teacher effectiveness has been unable to demonstrate that effectiveness is strictly a function of scholarship, certain personality traits, or that there are good or bad methods apart from the persons and purposes involved (Combs, 1965). According to Biddle and Ellena (1964) the problem of teacher effectiveness is so complex that to delineate just what the competent teacher is becomes difficult.

A further review of research literature in the field of education reveals an equal concern for the humanizing factor in the educational process. Humanistic inquiries center around teacher expectancy studies (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Davidson & Lang, 1960), interpersonal relationship studis (Rogers, 1962; Combs, 1970) and learning climate studies (Anderson & Walberg, 1967 Sinclair, 1968; Dobson, Grey, and Dobson, 1979).

Schools systems are, in many ways, developed and maintained by teachers and principals. These are the personnel who establish and maintain the physical, social and psychological environments which possibly affect, in some manner, the academic, social and emotional performance or growth of students (Davidson & Lang, 1960). Certainly, it is within the school and classroom environment that teachers and pupils act, react, interact, and possibly transact. It is also here that effective teacher leadership along with environmental conditions become of collective, interactive importance in developing a climate conducive to fostering desirable growth.

Attempts at improving the quality of education have been in the form of the implementation of organizational, curricular, and instructional schemes. Conversely, we believe that in order to improve the quality of schools, emphasis must be placed upon the individuals who interact daily. Therefore, any revolution in education will necessarily involve introducing the unique person of the teacher into the classroom. West (1972) states that schools have sanctioned an organizational face by assuming that all teachers are alike in needs, abilities and aspirations: a teacher is not "... a carbon copy of his colleagues" (p. 249). He continues that because schools tend to view teachers as if they were cast from the same mold, many experience loss of identity and alienation from self. This results in the schools benefiting neither the students nor the teachers.

Only when teachers are aware of themselves and reciprocal influences will it be possible to alter school climates that discourage learning. Based on the assumption that the teacher is the dominant influence in the classroom, teacher self-awareness becomes a potent force in facilitating a quality climate for living and learning. The remainder of this paper discusses what we believe should be the focus of teacher effectiveness, the unique person who teaches.

The Teacher's Personal Philosophy

Individuals possess a philosophy of life whether they are cognizant of it or not. Teachers' philosophies, personal values and beliefs, form the foundation from which they make choices or decisions relative to their personal and professional lives. Hunter (1979) emphasizes that teaching is decision making and Peterson (1979) reports that the process of teacher decision making is an increasingly potent area for research.

Beliefs. Basic to a teacher's personal philosophy is his/her belief in human nature or the belief about people and how they grow and develop. The helping professions research of Combs, et al. (1969) concludes that the systems of beliefs that helpers hold of others is an extremely important variable in their effectiveness. They continue that beliefs enable helpers to be spontaneous in their transactions with others. Purkey and Avila (1971) also emphasize that the teachers' beliefs concerning the worth and dignity of individuals are paramount and that in order to identify good and poor teachers it is necessary to explore how teachers see themselves and the world around them.

Concomitantly, Beniskos (1971) states: "Teaching is not just a matter of possessing skills, nor of being possessed by skills either" (p. 35). He continues that it is

too easy to hide behind skills, and thus avoid relating to people. Beniskos emphasized that skills are those things which a teacher adds to what he/she already is. Usher and Hanke (1971) agree when they state:

> The primary "tool" with which teachers work is themselves. Effective teaching is thus seen as effective use of the teacher's own self; the peculiar ways in which he is able to combine his own knowledge and sensitivity with his own unique ways of putting it into operation so as to be helpful to others (p. 3).

Therefore, Usher and Hanke (1971) recommend that educators attempt understanding effective teachers from a "self as instrument" approach (p. 3). They contend that teachers, like everyone else, are unique individuals. The "self as instrument" concept concerning teaching means that teacher effectiveness is a personal matter of the effective use of a unique self. This particular orientation helps to account for why attempts to determine teacher effectiveness as a result of knowledge, personality traits, competencies and methods have not proved fruitful. The search for common characteristics and knowledge disregards the individuality of the teachers themselves. Usher and Hanke emphasize that the nature and quality of teachers' personal beliefs become crucial: teachers convey their beliefs through their methods, knowledge and procedures or in spite of specific procedures used in the classroom.

Goodlad (1977) echoes this sentiment and calls upon teachers to examine beliefs and to act responsibly so that they do not violate their own integrity. Seaberg (1974) also emphasizes that it is necessary for a teacher to clarify his/her beliefs about people and how they learn if he/she is to facilitate growth. She continues that teachers must not be ambivalent in their beliefs.

Kelley and Rasey (1952) point out that teachers' basic beliefs about human nature help to define the relationship with students. Essentially, all teachers have experienced teacher education curricula which have great similarity, yet teaching behavior and learning climates from classroom to classroom seem to possess a high degree of variability (Ragan, 1953). What might affect these differences is a research question of great magnitude.

The relationship between teachers' philosophies of human nature and selected educational variables seem to be an area of research worthy of expanded analysis. Additional research is needed to identify these variables and their interrelations.

Values. Kemp (1967) stresses that technical thinking and planning have negatively influenced the sense of community once prevalent in our society. He states that there has occurred a depersonalization in all forms of relationships in home, school, office and factory. As a result, a person's values often are second-hand introjections from many, often conflicting sources. There is a definite need for teachers to recognize their own basic value structures and the value base of those with whom they interact.

According to Katz and Stotland (1959), values are a highly integrated set of attitudes about particular objects in an individual's environment. One's values are generally lasting and deep-seated beliefs. Today, educators realize that value-neutrality on the part of the teacher is an impossibility. If teachers cannot maintain neutrality, then they must be aware of the values they expose.

Moustakas (1967) discusses what he terms universal values and self-values. He defines universal values as "...values which have remained essential throughout human history, giving the individual and human life a whole meaning" (p. 2). In terms of human relationships he emphasizes the following universal values: honesty, love, beauty, justice, truth and freedom.

Self-values, according to Moustakas (1967), are the resources existing within self; the interests, meanings and desires unique to each individual. He continues:

> Self-values are in jeopardy in any climate where freedom and choice are denied, in any situation where the individual rejects his own senses and substitutes for his own perceptions the standards and expectations of others (p. 5).

Values are an important element in an individual's life. And yet, many schools do not provide the freedom nor encourage teachers to express and live by their own values. Teachers are often forced to accept or at least to play a role that they accept the values of a particular school system in order to keep their jobs. Therefore, teachers may be engaging in self-betrayal of values (Moustakas, 1967) and forcing themselves to fit into another's plans and to interact with others in ways that have no personal meaning or value. Gordon (1974) states: "Teachers are members of an organization whose norms, rules, policies, prohibition, and job definitions strongly influence how they respond to students and how they teach them" (p. 307).

We believe that by prizing the individuality or the uniqueness of teachers, then the learning environment of the school will become one of encouraging individuality of students. Sanders and Sanders (1978) describe such a learning environment as one that: 1) respects, emphasizes and appreciates the worth of each child; 2) encourages open communication and expression of feelings; and 3) encourages the discovering of understanding and knowledge. Therefore, they propose

that learning environments prize human values, social values and intellectual values. By freeing the teacher from playing the role of teacher, by encouraging the person of the teacher to interact with others, then such a learning environment is possible in all schools.

The Teacher's Personal Sensitivity

The personal sensitivity of teachers, awareness of attitudes and feelings they experience from moment to moment, as well as the awareness of the attitudes and feelings children are experiencing, is a tremendous influence in the classroom. What the teacher is experiencing at the moment of interaction with a child will influence his/her tone of voice, rate of speech, facial expressions, and gestures as well as verbal content. What the child is experiencing at the time of the interaction will definitely influence his/her acceptance of the teacher's message and the response. Therefore, attention must be paid to the sensitivity of the teacher, not only because it influences the communication process within the classroom, but because sensitivity or lack of sensitivity to self and others influences one's personal growth.

Feelings. The word "feelings" may be one of the most overworked words in our vocabulary: it is used to express human conditions ranging from physical to emotional. Dobson, Dobson & Grahlman (1977) state: "Teachers talk about feelings, educational professors profess about them; psychologists research them; and all of us experience them" (p. 6).

We contend that the feelings experienced in a classroom whether they be positive (happiness, excitement, acceptance) or negative (anger, frustration, rejection) not only influence personal and social growth but also the academic growth of students. Leonard (1968) suggests that certain social conditions encourage the ignoring of emotions and the distrusting of one's own feelings.

Dahms (1972) reinforces this view by suggesting that people are taught to suppress and control feelings rather than to express them. He states that interpersonal relationships occur, more often than not, at an intellectual level (playing a role, wearing a facade) as opposed to an emotional level (mutual accessibility, openness). The result is superficial contact between and among humans. He presents an argument for emotional intimacy as a basic requirement for true human survival.

Hamachek (1969) relates that good teachers view teaching as primarily a human process involving human relationships and human meanings. He continues that flexibility and the ability to perceive the world from the student's point of view (both influence human relationships) seem to distinguish the more effective from the less effective teacher.

The Teacher's Personal Psychological Posture

How teachers feel about themselves, their psychological postures, definitely influence what happens or what does not happen in the classroom. The fears or insecurities some teachers possess concerning their own personal worth may create barriers to honest personal encounters with youngsters (Dobson and Dobson, 1976).

Self-Concept. Self-esteem, self-concept and self-image are terms that are discussed at length by educators. Books and articles are written on the topic and educators attempt to measure it through standardized inventories and make inferences about it through observation. Most educators will argue that self-concept, the image a person holds of self, is not objective and does influence thoughts, perceptions and behaviors. The developmental aspect of self-concept has been described by many researchers (Allport, 1937; Engel, 1959; and Purkey, 1970).

The self-concepts of teachers are continuously influenced by those who interact with them as responsible and valuable or those who interact with them as irresponsible and unable. Purkey (1978, p. 30) states "one's self-concept is a complex, continuously active system of subjective beliefs about one's personal existence." The self-concept serves as a guide or a reference point for one's behavior (Glock, 1972). Therefore, all that a person experiences is filtered through and mediated by his/her self-concept, an image one has learned from significant others over the years. Since one's perceptions of self are learned over a period of time, they are quite resistant to change (Purkey, 1978). If the self-concept serves as a guide and mediator of perceptions, thoughts and actions then the image a teacher has of self is of utmost importance. Hamachek (1969) and Deiken and Fox (1973) suggest that if it is true that good teachers have a positive view of themselves and others, then more opportunities should be provided for both preservice and inservice teachers to acquire positive self-perceptions.

Personality Characteristics. Many research efforts aimed at investigating teacher effectiveness have attempted to delineate personal characteristics of good versus poor teacher. deBruin (1969) suggests "... that so-called good teachers, at any level, do not fit into any 'common mold'" (p. 241). He stresses that the effectiveness of the teaching act is an individual matter involving aspects of a teacher's unique personality. He continues that effective teaching seems to involve persons' insights into their own capabilities and limitations: how teachers think others perceive them and how they perceive themselves are important clues to performances.

Both deBruin (1969) and Usher and Hanke (1971)

contend that the effective teacher is original in his/her performance, creative in his/her thinking and flexible in adjusting to the learning situation. Therefore, the good teacher possesses versatility, flexibility and creativity.

After a review of literature, Hamachek (1969) states that effective teachers appear to be those who are human in the fullest sense. They have a sense of humor, are fair, empathic, more democratic than autocratic, and are able to relate easily and naturally to students on either a one-to-one or group basis. The classrooms of effective teachers seem to reflect an openness, spontaneity and adaptability to change.

Self-Fulfilling Prophecies. As a result of past experiences individuals develop certain expectancies about their behaviors. Through the years individuals have been reinforced in their own evaluations of their behavior, their estimate of selves in relation to others, and their impressions of others' feelings toward them. In a review of the literature relative to the effects of expectancies of self and others on actual behavior, Brickman (1966) derived two generalizations: (1) People who expect to fail are most likely to fail even when they succeed and desire success; and (2) If people do perform well, they are more likely to discount the evidence of their successes. Brickman believes that this occurs because behaviors that disconfirm expectations lead an individual to feel dissatisfied and uncomfortable. As a result, individuals desire to live up to their own expectations.

The process of perceiving which precedes expectations, is unique to each individual. Bruner (1958) states that humans tend to maintain a consonance of their opinions, ideas and attitudes. Therefore, individuals attempt to eliminate or minimize surprise by imposing a subjective consistency upon their environments.

Braun (1973) states that the psychological credibility of the self-fulfilling phenomenon is perhaps one reason that research has continued despite the failure of Rosenthal and Jacobson to provide totally convincing evidence. Neither Snow (1969) nor Thorndike (1968) deny the fact that teacher expectation may be a powerful force. Additional impetus has been provided by studies lending support to the phenomenon (Brophy & Good, 1970; Mendoza, et al., 1971; Seaver, 1971).

Summary

In any event, schools are complex social organizations and simplistic approaches to improving the quality of schools are ineffective. A review of the literature suggests that the person of the teacher is a most important factor in the learning process and that a teacher's philosophy, personal sensitivity and psychological posture form the foundation from which he/she makes choices and decisions for living life. Therefore, any revolution in education will necessarily involve introducing the unique person of the teacher into the classroom.

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The Child's Functioning as Part of School Climate

by D. LaMont Johnson and Steven D. Harlow

One important aspect of school climate is how the individual child views his own sense of functioning. Earnest Becker (1964) said, "Each child must feel himself to be a locus of primary value in a world of meaning." When the child is in school, his world of meaning is the school and its climate. The child's sense of functioning is his perception of how well he meets the many demands placed upon him within the school climate.

We have all learned—sometimes the hard way—that some actions are appropriate for certain situations and not for others. As we become more mature, we become more adept at sizing up situations and recognizing what is expected. These situations are part of the total school climate. What is expected within the climate can be referred to as what the climate intends—that set of criteria for appropriateness which is present at any given time in any given setting. Judgments can then be made about the degree, level, or general adequacy of an individual's functioning by examining his performance in a given climate in relation to what that climate intends.

The major premise of this article is that the *child's sense of functioning, within what he perceives as the climate, is part of the total school climate.*

We suggest that there are three basic patterns of relating to any given climate: survival, adjustment, encountering. We are not attempting to set forth a classification system but simply suggesting that, in any climate, an individual will tend to relate in one of these three basic patterns. Consequently, these patterns provide a very useful starting point from which to explore in more depth and detail the functioning of an individual.

Survival

The first and least rewarding pattern of relating to the school climate is survival. The child who is a survivor is concerned mainly with getting through time and space without disturbing his established ways of satisfying needs. For whatever reason (perhaps he has learned that the climate is dangerous and painful and cannot, by his efforts, be mastered), the child wishes to keep things constant and reduce the amount of change in his world. His behavior is stereotyped and rigid. Thus, his behavior is extremely predictable to those who have worked with him. When confronted by a new situation, he will ignore its special demands and treat it as if it were no different from previous situations. When problems arise, the survivor unsuccessfully attempts to meet them by responding with generally inappropriate behavior, having little confidence in his ability to alter matters by direct action. A seeming advantage is safety through predictability and the reduction of uncertainty.

The disadvantages of this pattern are that, since the child does not "risk poor input" he cannot grow; he denies himself the opportunity to learn better ways of coping with his environment; and he is bound to the immediate satisfaction of his basic needs. When an individual is in a survival pattern, he:

- Lacks feelings of self-worth.
- Assumes that key others view him as being unworthy.
- Holds the belief that he "can't."
- Believes that the external world cannot, by his own efforts, be mastered and may try to escape to an internal world which will at a minimum shield him from what he "cannot" handle.
- Wishes safety.
- Is not reinforced by the ongoing system and its activities.
- Is not expansive; that is, he is unwilling to attempt the new.
- Is closed, noninvolved. Change is feared and avoided.

Survival situations are common to all of us. We probably all *survive* at some point almost every day of our lives. The term *survival* is used here not in the positive sense of being able to conquer all odds and come out the winner, as when a person goes on a survival hike into the wilderness. Rather, the term has a general negative connotation: Survival is not a rewarding experience at those times when we feel helpless, alone, frustrated, etc. Let us illustrate to trigger your own memory processes:

> During a recent spring vacation we and our wives, along with two other couples, went skiing at a major ski resort. Some in our party were experienced skiers; others were complete novices. It was decided early-on that the novice skiers would begin with some ski lesscns. As it turned out, one of our group never completed the first lesson. Completely

> frustrated and embarrassed by his inability to control, to even the least degree, the skis attached securely to his feet, he gave up saying, "I can't do it." No amount of coaxing and encouraging from the rest of us could convince him differently.
>
> To the novice skier, there had been no satisfaction from the experience. He had dealt with the situation in the only way that made any sense at the moment—that was to escape and abandon the whole prospect of a four-day skiing experience.

Several pertinent questions to ask about your school climate are:

- How does the child feel when he is in survival pattern?
- How often is the child in the survival pattern?
- How often does the school create for the child a climate which intends survival?

Adjustment

A second pattern of relating to the school climate is *adjustment*. In this pattern, the person is concerned with learning what is expected of him by others and then producing corresponding behavior. The adjustor is an "other-directed individual." Reinforcements and rewards come from the response of others to his behavior. Security comes from being able to assess what is being "paid off" in a situation and then affecting the behavior that will cash in. He is intolerant of divergence from the perceived correct ways of behaving, thinking, and valuing. While the adjustor is not fearful of change, as is true of the survivor, awareness of change and novelty is controlled. New ways of thinking and behaving are first sanctioned by an individual or reference group representing *authority*, and then are introduced to the adjustor—a child vitally concerned with the "right way." In the adjustment pattern the individual is:

- More concerned with the demands of the situation than with questioning it for some greater meaning.
- Concerned with the "right way," which is defined by what other key people want and do.
- Very responsive to norms and authorities when confronting problems.
- Motivated largely by a need for predictability and order.
- Very concerned about efficiency.

We like to think of this pattern as the green light—red light syndrome. The adjustor is able to go when the light turns green and stop when it is red. He is, however, characterized by a dependence on this outward direction. Feedback from others is very important to the adjustor also. The child who is relating in this pattern will continuously ask: "How am I doing?" Unless direction and feedback are provided, the adjustor will begin to become uneasy, and what was an adjustment situation may turn into a survival situation. Let's return to the ski trip experience:

> Some members of the ski party were equally as inexperienced as the novice who found skiing a survival experience. These individuals, however, soon began to adjust. By the end of the third day, they had, to some degree, mastered the mountain. They could get on and off the lift; stop when it was appropriate; turn when it was appropriate; and get up with a certain degree of ease after falling. They were, however, very dependent on the instructor or each other for directions as to when to stop, when to turn, and how fast to travel. They were also very concerned with the questions: "How am I doing? Did I do that right? What do I do next?"

The adjustment pattern is definitely more rewarding and satisfying than the survival pattern. In the adjustment pattern the individual does get positive feedback. There is certainly a degree of pride and satisfaction from being able to produce what is expected. The fact is that most of us, most of the time, are adjustors. Most situations in our lives—whether in school, work, church, or elsewhere—intend adjustment. If you think back through a situation where you were adjusting, you may have had mixed feelings, some positive and some negative, but no really strong feelings either way.

The implication of this pattern for the child is an awareness that, while adjustment is an important relational pattern for the child to develop, it also has its limitations. The limitations are the dependency upon direction and feedback from others.

Encountering

The third and most satisfying relational pattern is *encountering*. The encounterer is less concerned with security and certainty and is much more occupied with what Erickson (1963) referred to as an inner mechanism which permits the individual "to turn passive into active" and "to maintain and regain in this world of contending forces an individual sense of centrality, of wholeness, and of initiative."

John Holt (1969) depicts what we have called the encounterer in this way: He is the child who

> ...wants to make sense out of things, find out how things work, gain competence and control over himself and his environment... He is open, receptive, and perceptive. He does not shut himself off from the strange, confused and complicated world around him. He observes it closely and sharply and tries to take it all in... He is experimental... he wants to find out how it works, and he works on it...

He can tolerate an extraordinary amount of uncertainty, confusion, ignorance, and suspense.

When an individual is functioning in an encountering pattern, he is:

- Independent in judgment and behavior;
- More comfortable with change, flexible;
- Questioning rules and norms as to some greater value;
- More capable and willing to make choices;
- More deeply involved in situations;
- Able to generate excitement through learning;
- Socially sensitive in that he is more able to deal with divergencies in others and in himself;
- Able to feel more himself.

Let us return once again to the ski slopes:

By the end of the fourth day of the ski vacation, some of the skiers in our party had truly had encountering experiences. These experiences were not the same for each individual, but each felt some of the positive feelings described above. These individuals had gone beyond adjusting. For them the mountain had become a personal challenge. They were no longer dependent upon directions and feedback from others, but had interacted in their own way according to what was meaningful for them. Mastering the basic rudiments became less of a concern than utilizing these rudiments in new and novel (for each person, at least) ways. These individuals indeed felt a sense of mastery over their environment.

The skiing episode illustrates how different individuals can relate very differently in a given climate. It should also illustrate how different the consequences are for each individual, depending upon the pattern with which he relates. The total climate, of which the mountain and its winter splendor were only part, was different for different members of the ski party. How each viewed the climate was dependent in part by his role in it—his sense of functioning.

Likewise each individual child will view the school climate from a different perspective. We can, however, speak of one total pervading school climate. The quality of this climate is directly related to the number of children who are encountering. As more children move to encountering patterns and less children are left to survive the total school climate improves. While a climate which only intends adjustment may be seen as functional and efficient, it lacks the excitement and fascination of that school climate where children are allowed and encouraged to go beyond adjustment to encountering.

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Test Anxiety: Its Nature and Remediation in Public School Settings

by Gary W. Weibly

Introduction

This article will attempt to address a special aspect of school climate—test anxiety. The construct known as anxiety has been the subject of an increasing number of research efforts with more than 3,500 books and articles related to this subject written in the period from 1950 to 1966 (Spielberger, 1966). Survey studies have revealed that anxiety is not an unfamiliar experience to the majority of people. Anxiety has been reported by subjects representing nearly all ages and stations in life (Spielberger, 1972). Given its pervasiveness, educators and psychologists have become increasingly concerned over the role of anxiety in the school setting.

A majority of the research in the area of school-related anxiety has been aimed at exploring the salient dimensions of test anxiety. In general, test anxiety is conceptualized as a cognitive, physiological, and behavioral reaction to test or test-like situations in the school, home, or other setting. This reaction has been found, under certain conditions, to interfere with appropriate behavior in a testing situation, and thereby contribute to decreased performance. In the schools, test anxiety has been found to be correlationally related to lowered performance in achievement tests, lowered grade point averages, and lowered student self-concept. As the existence and general negative effects of anxiety in school have emerged as legitimate concerns for educators, there has been a concomitant rise in interest in the development of intervention strategies to deal with anxiety (Phillips, 1968).

The remaining sections of this article will address the following test anxiety issues:

- Test Anxiety as a Component of School Climate
- Anxiety Theory
- The Nature of Anxiety
- Anxiety Research
- The Treatment of Anxiety
- A School-Based Anxiety Treatment Model
- Summary and Concluding Remarks

Test Anxiety as a Component of School Climate

In the past decade the concept of school climate has emerged as a central issue for many educators. The concern attached to school climate may be illustrated by the following quote from a recent ERIC Research Action Brief (1978):

> Practitioners and researchers alike agree that school climate is important. Administrators and teachers acknowledge its importance when they speak of boosting morale, increasing involvement, and, in general, maximizing job satisfaction and productivity. Researchers have acknowledged its importance by conducting a multitude of studies intended to indicate the impact of school climate on job satisfaction and productivity and to delineate the relationship between leadership style and organization climate (p. 1).

Since its first appearance in the literature in the mid-1950s, school climate has been defined in a variety of fashions and used interchangeably with a variety of other terms and concepts. The present paper, as a departure point for viewing school and test anxiety as a special facet of school climate, partially adopts the viewpoint of school climate presented by Kelley and his associates (1979).

Kelley makes the point that school climate is best conceptualized as the relationship between the characteristics of an environment and the outcomes which occur in that environment. In school settings, says Kelley, the relationships that are of importance to school climate may be described by the interaction of six Environment factors (physical, emotional, cognitive, social, purpose, and structure) and five Outcome factors (achievement, self-concept, social relations, attitude changes, and behavior change). For Kelley, school climate is thus ultimately concerned with both the accomplishment of goals and the feelings of individuals within the organization. With this definition as a departure point, it seems legitimate to include test anxiety as a component of school climate, in as it (test anxiety) certainly involves the feelings of individuals as well as impacts goal achievement.

Anxiety Theory

The rapid upward spiral of research on the phenomenon of anxiety has, unfortunately, failed to produce a single, comprehensive, universally accepted theory of anxiety. As an example of this lack of unity, terms that have been used interchangeably with anxiety include: conflict, frustration, arousal, drive, threat, psychological stress, physiological stress, and fear (Martin, 1970).

Despite the apparent diversity of theoretical orientations in the field of anxiety, some researchers have made efforts to identify points of similarity and difference between the various conceptual viewpoints. Phillips, Martin, and Meyers (1969) present a comprehensive review and synthesis of the psychological literature pertaining to anxiety and school-related interventions that affords a useful framework for clustering or grouping anxiety research into three broad, different, theoretical orientations in psychology:

1. Psychoanalytic Theory and Anxiety. In his work, *The Problem of Anxiety*, Sigmund Freud described anxiety as a "character of unpleasure" which "seemed to possess a particular note of its own" (1936). Although his earliest theoretical works conceptualized anxiety as arising from blocked or repressed lustful ideas, Freud eventually conceptualized anxiety as serving a signal function, alerting the individual of a dangerous situation. Within this framework, Freud made careful distinction between objective anxiety (fear) and neurotic anxiety. Objective anxiety, according to Freud, is an adaptive response manifested when an actual danger situation is encountered by the individual. Neurotic anxiety, conversely, was conceptualized as arising from internal impulses and as being maladaptive in nature, and related more to a subjective or internally perceived danger than to a real external danger.

2. Learning (S-R) Theory and Anxiety. In general, theories grouped under this orientation hold the belief that anxiety, similar to any other exhibited behavior, is a learned or conditioned response. Within this framework, anxious behaviors such as distractibility, lack of concentration, and autonomic manifestations are explained in terms of general learning theory principles, with classical conditioning and operant learning being key concepts.

The concept of viewing anxiety as a conditioned or learned response may be traced back to Watson and Raynor's famous experiment with little Albert (1920). These investigations conditioned, via traditional classical methods, an anxiety response in an infant to a previously neutral stimulus, a white rat. Since that pioneer work, researchers have clearly demonstrated that environmental conditions may be manipulated so that a previously neutral stimulus (e.g., a test) consistently evokes or elicits an anxiety response.

3. Cognitive Theory and Anxiety. Theorists falling into this orientation toward anxiety often adopt the learning principles described in 2. above but also include the belief that cognitive variables are crucial in the understanding and successful modification of human behavior. These cognitive theorists regard an individual's cognitions, perceptions and conscious processes as being instrumental in the development and maintenance of anxious behavior. That is, what people think, feel, and tell themselves about a situation has a great impact on the development of anxious behavior.

The Nature of Anxiety

Early research on anxiety and its measurement made the assumption that anxiety was a unitary concept comprised of a single component (Cattell and Scheier, 1958). Since then, however, researchers have begun to formulate and support the hypothesis that anxiety is a multifactored construct (Cattell and Scheier, 1961; I. Sarason, 1960). The investigation of this hypothesis has been aided by the advent of powerful computer-based statistical techniques such as factor analytic methods which allow for the different sources of variance within a major variable to be identified.

With regard to test anxiety, perhaps the most useful "factoring" research has been conducted by Liebert and Morris (1967). Through factor analysis of the Test Anxiety Scale, a self-report anxiety measurement scale, these authors identified two separate dimensions or components of test anxiety: "Worry (W) ... any cognitive expression of concern about one's own performance, and Emotionality (E) ... automatic reactions which tend to occur under examination stress" (p. 975). Worry is characterized by self-ruminations and negative self-cognitions, while emotionality is characterized by such physiological indicators as trembling hands, sweaty palms, and so forth.

Stimulated by the worry-emotionality dual component view of anxiety presented by Liebert and Morris and others (Doctor and Altman, 1967; Morris and Liebert, 1970), Wine has presented an interpretation of the nature of test anxiety and its effects on performance which describes a cognitive-attentional dimension (1971). In a comprehensive review of the literature dealing with test anxiety, the author finds support for her contention that the detrimental effect test anxiety has on task performance may be interpreted within an attentional framework. That is, "during task performance the highly test anxious person divides his attention between self-relevant and task-relevant variables, in contrast to the low test-anxious person who focuses his attention more fully on the task" (p. 92).

An additional component of test anxiety receiving attention recently may be conceptualized in terms of a skills deficit framework. That is, the anxiety an individual experiences in any given situation may be seen as partially related to the absence of skills necessary for successful coping. For example, the anxiety a test-anxious student experiences when confronted with an examination may be viewed as a partial product of poor study habits and inappropriate or absent test-taking

skills. Lacking the skills necessary to perform successfully on the examination, the student experiences anxiety.

Support for including such a skills deficit component of test anxiety has come from studies reporting a consistent relationship between test anxiety, poor study skills, and inadequate test-taking skills (Desiderato and Koskinen, 1969); Sassernath, Kight, and Kaiser, 1965; and I. Sarason, 1960). Such research has found that subjects with high anxiety scores report poorer study habits than subjects with low test anxiety scores. Furthermore, quality of study habits has been found to relate positively to academic achievement, as measured by grade point average.

Anxiety Research

The majority of research studies involving anxiety employ correlational analysis methods in formulating their conclusions. That is, they statistically determine whether a relationship exists between anxiety and the target variable of interest. Such statistical methods, however, suffer from intrinsic characteristics that restrict the scope of their interpretation. Perhaps the most serious limitation of correlational techniques is their inability to clearly document causal relationships between variables. That is, a significant correlation between variables A and B reveals no more than an index of association. It may not be justifiably assumed that variable A causes variable B or vice versa. Accordingly, caution must be exercised in interpreting the results of anxiety research that employs such techniques.

This section will summarize the vast body of research that has been undertaken to explicate the impact of anxiety. It will be divided into two major categories: (1) anxiety and personality, and (2) anxiety and academic performance.

1. Anxiety and Personality. Gaudry and Spielberger (1971), in their review of the pertinent research on anxiety and personality correlates, conclude that, "...the evidence suggests that high anxious children (1) are self-disparaging; (2) are unadventurous; (3) possess more negative personality characteristics; and (4) have a strong tendency to indulge in daydreams. Classmates appear to react unfavorably against the high anxious, while teachers, after the first few years at least, see them as possessing characteristics currently regarded in western culture as negative and unfavorable..." (p. 22).

2. Anxiety and Academic Performance. In their overall summary of the research dealing with the relationships between anxiety and academic performance, Gaudry and Spielberger (1971) state that, "The most consistent general finding noted...is that high anxiety is associated with relatively low performance at both the school and university level... For elementary school children, the evidence suggests that negative correlations between anxiety and achievement tend to increase in size for the higher grade levels, provided that the anxiety scales are given in reasonably close proximity to the achievement test. In addition, the following three tentative conclusions appear to be supported by research findings: (1) reading is more strongly associated with anxiety in the earlier grades than is arithmetic; (2) arithmetic (mathematics) becomes increasingly associated with anxiety toward the end of elementary grades; and (3) differential relationships between anxiety and performance for boys and girls may depend upon situational factors" (p. 41).

The Treatment of Anxiety

The treatment of anxiety in individuals has taken numerous forms. Just as the various theories of anxiety presented earlier may be conveniently grouped into three primary categories or orientations, so may the various intervention strategies. That is, anxiety intervention strategies may be seen as falling into three separate broad classifications: (1) Psychoanalytically oriented, (2) Behaviorally oriented, and (3) Cognitively oriented. Although the distinction between each of these three types is not hard and firm (Harris, 1974), a logical tie does exist between intervention strategy and its underlying theoretical rationale (Eysenck, 1965). Of the three intervention categories described by (1), (2), and (3) above, only behaviorally oriented and cognitively oriented anxiety reduction strategies will be discussed. The decision to leave out psychoanalytically oriented strategies was based on several factors: (a) there has been little systematic research carried out on the effectiveness of these techniques; (b) their applicability within the school setting, the focus of this article, is limited due to the lack of qualified personnel for implementation, high cost, and typical lengthy treatment duration; and (c) potentially adverse community sentiment and reaction to "personality" oriented treatments.

1. S-R and Behavioral Anxiety Interventions. Since the early work by Watson and Raynor (1920), the use of behavioral interventions based on learning principles to reduce anxiety has blossomed. The techniques falling into this intervention type generally use a common, generic strategy known as counter-conditioning. The most widely used technique of this type is systematic desensitization, first developed by Wolpe in the 1950s. Desensitization, as a general procedure, is carried out by gradually exposing an individual in small hierarchical steps to the situation or object that evokes fear or anxiety while simultaneously arranging for the individual to be engaged in an activity that is incompatible or

antagonistic to the anxiety response. The principle which underlies this desensitization process was called reciprocal inhibition by Wolpe, who stated that, "If a relaxation response can be made to occur in the presence of anxiety-evoking stimuli, it will weaken the connection between these stimuli and the anxiety responses" (Wolpe, 1962, p. 562).

Desensitization procedures have undergone numerous variations, including presentation of feared objects or situations via imagined hierarchy ("in vito") and via presentation of the actual object or event ("in vito"); the use of live presentation of the hierarchy by a therapist; use of automatic or taped presentation of hierarchy descriptions; and use with both individuals and groups. The counter-conditioning activities most commonly used in desensitization procedures have included deep breathing and muscle relaxation, positive imagery, food, and sleep (Wolpe, 1973).

2. Cognitive Anxiety Interventions. These interventions rely on the assumption that an individual's thoughts and cognitions play an influential role in determining behavior. Accordingly, these interventions stress the importance of cognitive variables in the remediation of anxiety.

The two most common and comprehensive intervention procedures employed by cognitive therapists are rational emotive therapy and systematic cognitive restructuring. Rational emotive therapy (RET) draws its origins from the work of Albert Ellis who postulated that every individual subscribes to, and behaves, according to strong core beliefs or philosophies about themselves and their behavior. Maladaptive or irrational behaviors, such as anxiety, says Ellis, arise when these core beliefs or guiding cognition conflict with one another or are not rational (1962). Examples of such irrational inner beliefs include "I must do the best work possible," "Everybody must like me," and "I must be perfect." Subscription to such beliefs, says Ellis, is doomed to failure, since they are, at times, mutually incompatible and/or unachievable. This failure in turn leads to negative cognitive self-evaluation by the individual, which results in the experience of anxiety. The RET-type anxiety interventions focus on directing individuals in the identification of their personal irrational beliefs, followed by use of strategies designed to help the individual replace these irrational beliefs with more rational ones (e.g., change "I must be perfect" to "I am only human, I will do the best I can").

A variation of RET is cognitive restructuring techniques, as evidenced by the work of Meichenbaum and his colleagues (1971, 1972). As opposed to RET's examination of generalized beliefs or expectancies, cognitive restructuring calls for individuals to identify the particular thoughts that have impact on their behavior. Of particular importance is the manner in which individuals interpret or label a situation. Wine's conception of test anxiety as a self-attention problem (1974) is a good example of the usefulness of cognitive restructuring techniques. She describes test-anxious people as carrying "around with them a set of habitual, negative self-related thoughts, an unnecessary 'do-loop' built into the cognitive system, readily triggered by the threat of evaluation. These thoughts may take a variety of form; but most of them are of a self-deprecatory, worrying nature" (p. 1). The primary therapeutic goal of cognitive restructuring interventions is to train individuals to eliminate self-relevant (off-task) thinking and worrying and to increase task-relevant thinking—that is, to turn their attention away from the self to the demands of the external situation.

A School-Based Anxiety Treatment Model

The author of this article, in conjunction with two colleagues, Drs. Myron Friedman and Susanna Maxwell, has developed a test anxiety intervention program for use in the public school setting. The program developed, Test Anxiety Management Training or TAMT, utilizes a variety of intervention techniques merged into an integral unit designed to address the cognitive, physiological, and behavioral aspects of anxiety. In the development of this program, consideration was given to the theoretical nature of anxiety; in this way, the specific intervention techniques incorporated into the model were chosen as the methods most clearly documented by past research as being effective in remedying three separate components of test anxiety: worry, emotionality and skills deficit. This tripartite conceptualization of test anxiety was adopted after a thorough review of the current literature related to test anxiety.

In the development of the TAMT program, there were additional concerns related to its intended use in a school setting. It was reasoned that an effective school-based anxiety intervention, in addition to dealing with all the component aspects of anxiety, would need to be designed so that it: could handle relatively large groups of children at a time, would be economical in terms of cost and duration of treatment, and would be educational in nature with a focus on teaching coping skills.

Briefly, TAMT consists of deep-breathing exercises and muscle relaxation training, cognitive restructuring training, and training in study skills and test-taking. These three strategies are designed to address the emotionality, worry, and skills deficit aspects of test anxiety, respectively. These TAMT activities are integrated and structured so as to blend the various training activities and build one strategy upon the others. The ultimate goal is to teach a wide array of coping skills that may be used together when the student is faced with an anxiety-producing situation such as a test.

In the TAMT program, new concepts and training content are all cycled through a three-step procedure: (1) **Awareness Phase**—The student, through leader modeling and group discussion arrives at self-awareness of the issue or technique at hand. Examples of this include having participants discover and discuss for themselves which aspects of an exam are anxiety producing for them and how they respond to these situations. The emphasis is on self-awareness, not leader dictation of "this is the way it should be." (2) **Training Phase**—Following the awareness phase of a new concept, there follows a period in which new techniques or skills are presented, modeled by the leader and practiced by the participants to ensure a "personal fit." Role modeling, homework assignments, recording of discussion points on butcher paper or blackboard (for immediate feedback and constant visual reinforcement) and behavioral documentation of change with instruments such as an anxiety diary checklist are all examples of behavioral techniques used in the TAMT program. (3) **Application Phase**—In this phase the participants are given the opportunity to actively try out the new concepts and techniques they have recently learned. An example of this is the use of "tests" that are presented in a realistic fashion to the group, in order to allow participants an opportunity to practice newly learned coping skills in a controlled situation.

The TAMT program, as originally developed, requires six one-hour sessions for completion. Each session has specific objectives and clearly outlined activities. The deep breathing and relaxation training component begins in session one via a thorough introduction and use of a three-page script designed to acquaint participants with the feelings of tension and relaxation in various muscle groups. As the TAMT program continues, the focus is on making the relaxation response come under the control of the individual, not the group leader. This is done by shortening the relaxation scripts used, introducing a 1-2-3 counting sequence in which participants relax entire muscle zones (e.g., head, neck, and shoulders) at a time and incorporating positive imagery into the process. The end goal is development of a relaxation response that is activated by the internal cues of tension and anxiety. Furthermore, the relaxation response developed is one that may be achieved in a short period of time, less than three minutes, and under normal classroom conditions (i.e., lights on, surrounded by people, lots of background noise).

The cognitive restructuring component of the TAMT program is aimed at helping the student identify the maladaptive thoughts of "situation labels" that occur in anxiety producing situations. Through group discussion and leader modeling, participants first explore which situations make them feel anxious, how they respond in that situation and whether that response helps or hurts their performance in the task at hand. Following this, the students are instructed in an appraisal procedure for evaluating their own thoughts or "self-talk" when in an anxiety producing situation. They are also taught procedures (e.g., "thought stopping") for replacing maladaptive thoughts with more appropriate, task-oriented ones.

The third component of the TAMT program, skills training, is designed to help the student develop effective study and test-taking skills. Much of the material used in this phase of the training is derived from the SQ3R method by Robinson (1970). During the skills training activities, students first describe their current study skills and assess the obstacles they encounter in preparing for and taking tests. Based on these observations, new procedures and strategies are collaboratively fashioned that incorporate sound time and resource management principles. Additionally, students review the process of test-taking itself, and in doing so develop an understanding of: what aspects of the test make them most anxious (e.g., students finishing before them, coming to a very hard item, and so forth), procedures for dealing with these aspects, and generic tips for test-taking (e.g., analysis of distractors in multiple choice tests for grammar and number cues, making preview margin notes on an essay test, and so forth).

The TAMT procedures have been used primarily with secondary students, but early pilot testing efforts included work with students as young as seven. In two field test efforts in senior high schools, the TAMT program was reported by participants to be enjoyable and useful in teaching them coping skills to deal with school stress. In a formal research study (Weibly, 1979), the TAMT program was found to be effective in reducing test anxiety and increasing academic achievement in two groups of secondary students.

Summary and Concluding Remarks

This article has attempted to present an overview of a special aspect of school climate known as test anxiety. A synthesis of the literature on anxiety was presented which gave support to a tripartite conceptualization of test anxiety which includes worry, emotionality, and skills deficit components. The negative or debilitating impact of anxiety on academic achievement and personality variables was discussed and some of the more common anxiety reduction treatment methods were described. Lastly, a specific test anxiety reduction multimodel treatment program, Test Anxiety Management Training, was presented.

The implications of the research cited are many. At the most primary level, teachers, principals and all other educational personnel should be aware of the existence of school-related anxiety and its typically debilitating

impact on a wide array of academically relevant variables. Furthermore, it is important for educators to realize that the experience of school-related anxiety is experienced, in varying degrees, by the vast majority of students in school today. Unfortunately, the conditions under which this anxiety is felt, and the manner in which it is manifested, are not uniform from student to student.

Although the ideal time to equip teachers with the skills necessary to reduce or prevent anxiety in their students is at the preservice or training level, reality is such that most teacher training programs overlook serious preparations in this area. Therefore, the typical teacher, while perhaps aware of the part anxiety plays in the academic lives of his or her students, is not prepared with adequate in-class methods for addressing this problem. A common response, therefore, continues to be referral to the counselor or other "specialized" individuals. While any attempt to deal with anxiety-related problems is to be encouraged, teachers need to be made aware of some simple principles and techniques that they may use in the classroom with their students to help reduce or even prevent school-related anxieties.

Teachers should perhaps be foremost aware of the activities they engage in that may produce anxiety in their students. All teachers are aware of "classic" ways in which this may be done: asking an unprepared student to speak in front of a class, unannounced "pop" tests, unrealistically difficult exams and so forth. Too often, however, other, more subtle, teacher behaviors have the same impact. Students in past TAMT groups have reported the following "innocent" teacher behaviors as being very anxiety producing: announcing the time remaining in exam, pacing through the class to answer questions during an exam, and being told that every student should be able to answer every question correctly if they studied. Accordingly, the point to be made is that teachers may not confidently assume that they are aware of which teaching behaviors generate anxiety. Clear-cut communication is essential; early-on in a semester, at all grade levels, teachers should spend a portion of a class period discussing stress and anxiety. Students should be encouraged to discuss with the teacher, *at appropriate times*, the things that make them anxious in school. Past TAMT experiences have revealed that students are often comforted to find that they are not the only ones who are made nervous in certain situations. Such sharing thus helps not only the teacher, by identifying ways to change teaching strategies to maximize student achievement, but also the student by making the classroom a more enjoyable environment. Care must be taken, however, to limit such discussions and sharing to task-relevant issues in order to avoid having students use them as a means of avoiding school work.

Lastly, many of the TAMT procedures are well suited for isolated implementation in the classroom by the teacher. Relaxation training, from use of a complete relaxation script to "stand and shake" exercises, is thoroughly enjoyed by the great majority of students. Teachers should make a point of incorporating some form of breathing and relaxation exercises into their regular curriculum, not just before a big test. The time needed for this is less than five minutes and for many students the results are tangible. One teacher associated with a past TAMT research effort continued developing relaxation skills in her students by incorporating positive imagery into the exercises used. Before any test, she would ask students to take a minute or two to relax, regularize their breathing, and to focus on an image of peacefulness and "academic confidence." She reports a positive impact on achievement as the result.

The cognitive restructuring techniques used in the TAMT procedures are also adaptable to use in the regular curriculum. Teachers associated with past TAMT research efforts have reported using a variation of such techniques successfully in the classroom. For example, one teacher reports that, in the center of each test, she would insert a "rest stop" item that instructed students to put their pencils or pens down and to "collect their thoughts" before continuing. Backed with previous training, this item instructed students to review their thoughts concerning the test; were they worrying about some aspect of the test over which they had no control? They were instructed to review the remainder of the test and to plot strategies for completing the test.

Study skills and test-taking skills are also a TAMT procedure that is of great value in the classroom. Teachers may profitably spend a class period early-on in the semester reviewing these topics. With regard to study skills, a simple review, based on student discussion, of effective and ineffective study skills will be of help to many students. The teacher may choose to permit, or even encourage, study groups within the classroom. With regard to test-taking skills, teachers may choose to spend time early in the semester reviewing the types of tests they are likely to give. They should be willing to share with the student the focus (e.g., "big picture" generalities vs. fine detail knowledge), level of ability (e.g., recognition, recall, application, etc.), and grading standards likely to be associated with their tests.

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School Climate and Creativity

by James M. Applefield

School climates have important consequences for the incidence and quality of creativity that are expressed in schools. The environment established by the teacher will directly influence students. Likewise, peers exert considerable control over one another's creative behavior. Not to be overlooked is the vital importance of the larger school environment.

Superintendents and school boards, principals and supervisors are major determiners of the degree to which school climates are conducive to creativity. Recognition of the characteristics of school climate that encourage or conversely deter creative expression is necessary before effective steps can be taken to improve the climate for creativity in schools.

Creativity is behavior that represents both a process and a product. As a process, it involves highly complex thinking using various proportions of knowledge, insight into new relationships among objects or events and keen attention to the environment. It is also characterized by a willingness to use fantasy thought, formulation and testing of hypotheses and skill in communicating one's thoughts. As a product, it involves the creation of something original that is meaningful and valuable to oneself and to society. Usually the product is a derivitive of previously accepted ideas, but it may represent a major departure from conventional thought and practice. Finally, the product or solution devised is the result of a considerable amount of motivation and intellectual energy focused on some ambiguous and ill-defined problem. Thus, creativity can be viewed as a special kind of problem solving, the product of which has novelty and value.

The creative capacity of a nation is a valuable resource that should be nurtured. If creativity is stimulated and rewarded at all levels of society and at all stages of the human lifespan, it leads not only to artistic achievement, but also to creative problem solving that is the creation of new solutions to problems of all kinds. Each of us possesses some degree of potentiality for creativity. It is thought that creativity is one aspect of intelligent behavior which can be expressed in a variety of ways and at a number of levels. There is considerable evidence to support the idea that most, if not all of us, can develop our creativity given suitable conditions. These conditions may vary from one person to another, but some general conditions appear to apply to children and adults alike.

Paul Torrance (1970), who has spent most of his professional career investigating creativity, believes that man has a preference for learning through creative and problem solving activities and that many important things can be learned more effectively and economically in creative ways rather than by authority. Some learners also have a special aptitude for learning through creative activities, and in fact, learn poorly through conventional ways, which Torrance calls learning by authority.

Learning by authority occurs when the learner is told what he should learn and is often accompanied by one's acceptance of an idea based on some authority (text, teacher, expert, group consensus.) Learning creatively requires, in addition to recognition, memory and logical reasoning (required in learning by authority), the abilities of evaluation, divergent production and redefinition. Creativity apparently involves different kinds of talents than have been traditionally cultivated in schools.

Creative teaching is unique too, in that it requires teachers who are creative and not afraid to take some risks. They tend to be highly sensitive, resourceful and flexible. Such teachers stimulate all children, especially those who dare to question, to imagine and to create. We need teachers and educational climates to encourage and model creative learning for children. Most would surely agree that we cannot afford to deny children the type of educational environments that reward them for thinking.

There is much research that has focused on the conditions that best facilitate creativity. One aspect of this sizable body of literature has correlated teacher characteristics with creativity. Teachers who are rated as resourceful and pupil-centered increase the creative behavior of students (Turner and Denny, 1967). Praising and encouraging student ideas and using student ideas to build classroom discussion were also associated with the increase of certain aspects of creative behavior.

On the other hand, low creative output can be expected in classrooms where challenging activities are rarely pursued and sanctions exist against questioning and exploring. Also found are pervasive pressures for intellectual and social conformity and a sharp division between work and play.

A variety of procedures have been developed to stimulate creativity. The various strategies that have been reported may be grouped according to the

particular emphasis that is given in the training (Meichanbaum, 1975). Some strategies emphasize systematic cognitive skill training and use the behavioral principles of modeling and reinforcement. A second strategy is concerned with providing a secure and supportive emotional climate for the expression of imaginative ideas. Yet another basic approach seeks to promote the development of certain attitudes such as willingness to take risks, acceptance of self and belief in oneself as a creative person.

Some valuable suggestions for encouraging creativity include:

1. Respecting individual differences.
2. Leading students to question and respecting unusual questions and ideas.
3. Permitting moderate disorder.
4. Leaving blocks of time free for thought and reflection.
5. Encouraging an appropriate degree of skepticism.
6. Relating material to other subjects, to broader concepts and to problems of relevance to learners.
7. Providing esthetic experiences, and encouraging openness to experience.
8. Using metaphor and the free association of ideas.
9. Providing for periods of nonevaluated practice or learning, thereby reducing pressure.
10. Reinforcing creative expression. (Torrance and Torrance, 1976)

Specific activities designed to implement these strategies are discussed by Davis (1976).

Underlying the successful use of the above suggestions for encouraging creativity is the classroom teacher. The teacher is the most critical variable, for it is the teacher who demonstrates positive attitudes toward creativity and also demonstrates skill in modeling abilities important for creative thinking (Belcher, 1974).

Just as teachers need to encourage creativity in their students, school administrators have the challenging task of stimulating and encouraging creativity in teachers. Instead of encouraging creativity, the opposite all too often occurs. It has been reported that less creative teachers are preferred to the more creative ones (Torrance, 1962). A similar finding is that teachers tend to prefer the high IQ pupil to the highly creative one. These attitudes result in part from the pressures for conformity that constrain individual creativity from flourishing within the group.

Further explanation of these attitudes can be found in generalized descriptions of characteristic personality and behavioral traits of highly creative teachers.

> They may have some oddities, be nonconforming, and at times be childish. They may even defy conventions of courtesy, seem uncultured and primitive, and be unsophisticated and naive about many things. They are too absorbed in helping children develop to be concerned with being sociable or socially skilled. At times creative teachers may seem haughty and self-satisfied, but this just exemplifies their independence in thinking. They may also appear discontented and fault-finding. And at times, they may feel that "the whole parade is out of step" (Torrance, 1962, pp. 195-196).

Finally, there is an unpredictable element associated with creative behavior, and this uncertainty may well lead to an uneasiness on the part of administrators.

The problem of school climate as it affects teachers' and their pupils' creative behavior results from the organizational pressures that operate to limit and mold creativity. Nevertheless, creative teachers need creative supervision. School administrators will find that it is necessary to examine their own beliefs about creativity and the consequences of creative behavior before determining how best to encourage it (Woodfin, 1968). For example, since creativity involves divergent thinking, the creative individual, student or teacher, will express ideas that are different from our own and perhaps different from existing educational practice. If creative behavior is desired, we can expect restlessness under conventional constraint and questioning of precedent. The administrator needs to show a reasonable tolerance of mistakes to avoid having the teacher's fear of failure prevent the true exercise of creative initiative. It is also highly important to give attention to the reward of creative efforts among teachers (Hophan and Peters, 1968).

Creative teachers need not be the cause of problems if there is creative supervision. A school atmosphere that is exciting and adventurous will result from the constructive interaction of creative teachers and enlightened supervision. Torrance (1962) has provided some useful suggestions for administrators in guiding creative staff members.

1. Communicate respect for creativity and creative teaching.
2. Use a regular system for obtaining teachers' ideas.
3. Encourage experimentation and accept the risk of failure.
4. Be tolerant of different ideas expressed by teachers.
5. Reward teachers for creative work and expose other teachers to it.
6. Overcome reluctance to question established concepts and practices.
7. Communicate regularly with teachers, but allow them to make most decisions alone.
8. Provide ways for teacher to communicate with others working on related problems.

Thus, a school climate for creativity would include leadership marked by flexibility, freedom to think and explore alternatives, lack of coercion to one set of ideas and enthusiasm and excitement for the myriad challenges of education.

School administrators play vital roles in promoting and facilitating the creativity of their staffs, and, of course, the students within the school. They have power and status and as a consequence are critical in deciding whether or not creativity will be a value in the school or school system. As we have seen, teachers can be powerful determiners of the amount and quality of creativity that students exhibit. They establish a climate for creativity by their behavior, their attitudes and their instructional strategies. Teachers, as well as students, need help in further developing their own creative abilities and perhaps in overcoming personal inhibitions to creativity. Also, teachers who are motivated to experiment with new ideas and who want to introduce innovations require a supportive climate. They need the clear support of administrators and supervisors. Likewise, administrators who dare to be creative need to be reinforced for their efforts. By supporting one another's creative endeavors and by sharing as a common goal the value of creativity, teachers and administrators can form an effective climate for the nurturance of creativity.

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The California Teacher Corps Network Scores a Victory: The National Validation of SIGMA

by Jaime Lujan and Cynthia Darche Park

In 1979, after rigorous regional and national scrutiny by experts in the field of education, SIGMA, **S**ystem for **I**ndividually **G**uiding **M**astery **A**ttainment, a teacher education model at San Diego State University, was the first project for adult learners to be nationally validated by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP) SIGMA is the first teacher education program, as well as the first Teacher Corps-sponsored program to receive this national recognition for excellence. Subsequently, SIGMA was also funded by the National Diffusion Network (NDN) so that the model can be nationally disseminated.

The push towards systematic instruction has taken two paths. One of these was spearheaded by independent professionals in education; and the other by those in governmental, decision-making positions.

The emphasis of professional educators for the improvement of curriculum in the teaching/learning process received a strong impetus from Fred Keller (1967) with his emphasis on personalized systems of instruction. James Block (1974) has reported the effectiveness of mastery learning through educational research. In a study where Koreans used mastery learning, children's learning performance was increased by an average of one quartile. Systematic instructional design, implemented mainly by industry and the military, has been an important and effective outgrowth of the mastery learning movement.

The USOE's sponsoring of the development of model elementary teacher education programs in the 1960s is symbolic of the initial thrust of governmental policy makers to move toward improving the quality of education. Governmental agencies have used federal funding as a device to influence the improvement of the professional qualifications of classroom teachers. Educational accountability and Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE) are further examples of the quest for excellence in teaching by governmental agencies.

A Description of SIGMA

The SIGMA system for teacher education was originally developed by concerned professionals using Teacher Corps developmental funds. The theoretical and philosophical assumptions underlying SIGMA emphasize that:

1. a high percentage (90 percent) of students can master all of the objectives necessary to become effective teachers, given the proper conditions and enough time;
2. competition for grades should not be used to motivate students;
3. full mastery of knowledge and skills should be required to complete the course of study;
4. a variety of student learning styles should be accommodated through the use of a variety of teaching modes, such as video tapes, audio cassettes, slide-tape presentations, and a wide variety of print materials.

SIGMA was validated regionally by the California Teacher Corps Network and actually by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP) of USOE and NIE. This **S**ystem for **I**ndividually **G**uiding **M**astery **A**ttainment employs various systematic approaches in the design and delivery of instruction. SIGMA has the following characteristics:

1. Objectives: The conditions necessary for success are stated behaviorally in terms of the student's performance on specific task at the beginning of each segment of instruction.
2. Prior knowledge and skills are assessed and acknowledged.
3. Students are allowed several alternatives to attain competencies specified.
4. Time to competency attainment varies with each student; thus, individuals may be in various phases in the course at one time.
5. Assessment: Evaluation of students is criterion-referenced rather than norm-referenced.
6. Student selection: SIGMA uses an open admissions policy.

The behavioral objectives for the modules (learning packages) used in the SIGMA program represent all the following levels of complexity:

1. Knowledge (assessed by paper and pencil test)
2. Performance (assessed by observation of teacher performance)
3. Consequence (assessed by changes in children's behavior as a result of teacher performance)
4. Affective (assessed by behavioral indicators of attitude and values)

Only those knowledge objectives have been chosen which directly bear on performances and consequences necessary for successful teaching. In this manner learning is made more efficient in that the student is not forced to learn material extraneous to the tasks of teaching.

Efficiency is also guaranteed because the student has the opportunity to show, before embarking on any of the activities, that she/he already has the knowledge or skills required by that module. The student may do this via successful passing of the preassessment for any particular module.

The possibility of failure is minimized in that students, after being introduced to the program, work at their own pace using self instructional modules. Each module outlines a number of instructional alternatives from which to choose in order to meet preset objectives, as well as others which students may set for themselves. Students have the option of working independently, in pairs, or in small groups on any given module. After taking a post-assessment for each module or module cluster, the professor checks to make certain that all objectives have been met. If the required mastery level was not reached, a process for remediation is negotiated between professor and student. If all the objectives have been satisfactorily achieved, the student will then proceed with subsequent modules.

An important component of the program is the Individualized Study Center (ISC) which houses all of the instructional materials and necessary equipment. Materials are cataloged so they are readily accessible to the students. Two rooms in the Center, one of which is designated as the "quiet room," are utilized as work space.

In SIGMA, objectives are either met or they are not; and, thus, meeting objectives means a *mastery level* of performance. It is important to realize that "C" teachers are not the type we wish to certify. SIGMA, being a performance-based personalized program, assures mastery of all objectives.

An open admissions policy allows students into the program with minimum weight assigned to traditional prerequisites. In this way, students are not penalized for what they don't know on entrance. Exit from the program, however, is based strictly on whether or not students meet the competencies required. This policy is particularly advantageous in recruitment of minority and other nontraditional students.

The Validation Process

How was the SIGMA program rated exemplary? A year-long process of review was conducted both at the regional and the national levels.

The regional review was conducted by the California Teacher Corps Network, a group composed of all Teacher Corps Project Directors in the State (The Board of Directors). The Board of Directors, minus the Director, seeking validation, acts as a peer board of review to assess the merit of the product or process being evaluated. In addition, a nationally known outside expert visits the project site to interview product users and to examine materials and any statistical evidence in regard to the effectiveness of the product or process.

Criteria which the Board of Directors used in making a decision for or against validation included:

1. Desirability: Judgments about the general applicability of the product, the number of potential users, and its appropriateness for users;
2. Practicality: Cost effectiveness, availability, ease of use, and flexibility (adaptability) of the product;
3. Intrinsic Quality: Sex, racial, ethnic bias, age level appropriateness, socioeconomic fairness, content accuracy, and currency;
4. Instructional Quality: Clarity of objectives, appropriate application activities, instructional evaluation;
5. Product Development: Evidence of systematic planning and representativeness of planners;
6. The effect of the project on users and any other spin-off effects that were not anticipated.

An important aspect of the regional evaluation which demonstrated the effect of SIGMA on its users was a controlled, one-and-one-half-year study by Don Enos of the University of Texas at Austin. This study focused on important issues concerning teacher effectiveness (1976). The Enos findings showed that SIGMA students, when compared to students in the conventional teacher training program at San Diego State University had (1) significantly greater knowledge about teaching and learning; (2) significantly better verbal interaction with children; (3) significantly greater use of individualized instruction; (4) significantly higher performance ratings from the children they taught, and (5) student teacher attitudes toward the program were highly positive and have continued to be positive in data collected subsequent to this study. In addition, as part of the regional validation process, the project was visited twice by the Teacher Corps Network Board of Directors. One aspect which was carefully reviewed was the development of built-in dissemination materials.

After approval at the regional level, national validation was gained through a review by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP). This panel is composed of 22 research experts, in equal numbers, from the U.S. Office of Education and the National Institute of Education. Though it is always flattering to obtain an official "seal of approval," the primary object of the validation process is to identify rigorously evaluated, examplary programs and practices which can be disseminated nationally to the educational community. The long-range goal of dissemination is the adoption or adaption of quality programs in other institutions.

Presently the SIGMA model is the recipient of an award from the National Diffusion Network (NDN) under the Division of Educational Replication of USOE to facilitate replicability of the program at other institutions. As a Developer/Demonstrator (D/D) Project, SIGMA personnel are funded to offer materials, training, and consulting services to interested adapters. The NDN also funds State Facilitator Projects to help D/D projects make contact with interested persons. With the inclusion of SIGMA, the NDN has opened its doors to providing faculty development service to institutions of higher education.

Replicability of SIGMA

Other programs "buying into" the SIGMA model developed at San Diego State University include ARRIBA, a program currently training 85 bilingual teachers for a basic, single subject teaching credential with a bilingual emphasis.

More than one-half of the students in the ARRIBA program represent the following groups: Hispanics, Blacks, Asians, and some individuals reentering the work force. More than 95 percent of minority students enrolled in the program successfully complete it, and over 85 percent of the students completing the ARRIBA program find jobs as teachers. The overwhelming success of ARRIBA reveals that the SIGMA model provides an atmosphere particularly conducive to the training of teachers working in nontraditional classroom settings.

Other departments within the College of Education who have professors and courses who utilize the SIGMA approach include the Department of Educational Technology and Librarianship, the Department of Special Education and the Community College program.

Replicability of the SIGMA model within the College of Education at SDSU has shown that this model represents a whole new avenue for staff development at institutions of higher education.

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Project Descriptions

Teacher Corps—Rowland Unified School District/University of LaVerne

The Rowland Unified School District in collaboration with the University of LaVerne has undertaken a five-year federally-funded Teacher Corps Project. Designed to increase the capacity of the district and University to meet emerging needs in public education, the project will focus on:

- La Seda Elementary, Giano Intermediate, and Nogales High School to improve the school learning environment;
- Community involvement through the elected Community Council representing parents of the project's schools and the community at large;
- Professional development opportunities for district teachers, including tuition-support for earning either the Learning Handicapped or Bilingual-Bicultural Specialist credential;
- Continuation of the district's staff development center;
- Preparation of interns for future teaching positions in bilingual classrooms;
- Research and development of effective teacher training programs to meet divergent student needs.

The five-year Teacher Corps plan requires that the entire first year be devoted to the careful planning and development of the specific programs which will be carried out in the second and third years. In the fourth year, successful programs developed and implemented by the project are validated by field-testing the procedures or programs in other schools in the district. Then, in the fifth year, programs which pass the validation test will be shared with school districts, colleges, and universities around the country.

This Teacher Corps Project presents a unique opportunity for a community, a school district and a university to collaborate. Collaboration will involve mutual planning, joint decision making and the exchange of resources. The school district, university and community will thus achieve commonly-held and separately-held objectives to a far greater extent than would occur if they were to remain isolated.

Teacher Corps—Oakland Unified School District/School of Education, University of California, Berkeley

The Oakland Unified School District, located in a core city of the metropolitan East Bay of over a million people has joined with the University of California, Berkeley and the Oakland community in developing and implementing a Teacher Corps Project.

Hoover Primary School (K–4), Marcus Foster Middle School (5–8), and McClymonds High School (9–12) were selected as the pilot schools and community for the project. The schools represent a high school and sequential feeder schools. Representatives of the school community, the instructional staffs of the project schools, the University of California staff from the School of Education and central staff from the Oakland Unified School District jointly developed the following project goals based on the assessed needs of the three schools. They are as follows:

- To develop models within the project schools for educational programs that are truly multicultural;
- To develop within each of the project schools the capability to provide quality education;
- To develop within the project schools curriculum elements and staff skills that will permit diagnostic, prescriptive, and mastery learning;
- To implement within the Oakland Unified School District a skill development program that is an ongoing part of regular school system priorities and budget;
- To improve the ability of the University of California, Berkeley to train teachers who are better prepared to deal with a wide range of urban school educational problems, and to modify its educational research practices and school assistance strategies;
- To make certain that the research, curriculum, and staff development activities that are developed and proved during the five years of the project become an ongoing and permanent part of the school operations;
- To make certain that the results of the program are disseminated to other schools in the Bay Area and other school systems throughout the State of California, and that the research and curriculum activities developed by the University are

disseminated to other universities throughout the state and region.

The first year of the project consisted of planning as established by the Federal Guidelines for Teacher Corps. Planning teams were formed to study the objectives and to devise plans for implementing an improved educational system. Minimum representation on each planning team consisted of a specialist in the area of concern from the University of California, Berkeley representation from the school site, and members of the community.

The remaining four years of the project will be devoted to implementing the recommendations of the various planning teams. Assessment of student and staff development needs will serve as the basis for pre-inservice staff training activities. This training and the effective teaching approaches which result will be used to develop instructional plans designed to enable students to achieve project and district goals and objectives.

The University of California, Berkeley/Oakland Unified School District Teacher Corps project focuses upon the following areas: Multicultural Education; Teaching-Learning Styles; Attitudes, Motivation and Participation; Students with Special Learning Problems; Curriculum Articulation; Community-Based Education; and Basic Skills.

Major emphasis is placed on the Basic Skills and the U.C. Berkeley/Oakland Unified School District Teacher Corps project has been designated as a "Title I, Teacher Corps, Title II: Basic Skills Improvement Pilot Project for Basic Skills Improvement." Major elements of the Basic Skills program include:

1. A special *Teacher Corps Title I Summer School Program* at one of the target sites. This will provide an opportunity for staffs to engage in recommended activities based on identified needs. Techniques, strategies, and methods learned during pre-inservice afternoon sessions will be used with students during the morning class sessions and will be evaluated for their effectiveness in improving student performance in Basic Skills;
2. A *Teacher Corps Basic Skills Coordinating Team.* This 16-member team will be composed of teachers and parents from the target schools, OPS and UCB representatives along with the Co-Directors. This team will be responsible to the OPS/UCB Basic Skills Coordinators and will work together to coordinate staff development activities and recommend program organization for the Teacher Corps Basic Skills Summer School Program. They will engage in reciprocal visitations at UCB and target school sites and become an ongoing working committee for the duration of the Basic Skills Project;
3. Emphasis on the important goals of enabling students to acquire and apply *thinking, questioning* and *reasoning;* steps in *problem solving; self-direction, self-reliance* and *active participation* in school and other learning situations; and *confidence in self-evaluation* to everyday aspects of their lives and in specific content areas, oral and written communication, reading and mathematics;
4. The use of *recommended* OPS/UCB and other consultants to conduct specific staff development sessions related to student and staff needs;
5. Instructional and learning activities to improve student academic performance in Basic Skills during the regular school year based on careful evaluation of teaching approaches;
6. Specific modifications in OPS and UCB pre-inservice training programs that will become clearly evident as a result of the pre-inservice staff development activities and their classroom implementation and evaluation.

Teacher Corps—New Haven School District/ California State University, Hayward

The staff development system being demonstrated has four components, namely:

1. A **university-sponsored series** of courses which are based on needs identified by the faculty members of the school. The courses are planned, carried out and evaluated jointly by district participants and university faculty, with *university* faculty taking primary responsibility.
2. A **district-sponsored series** of workshops based on the work of Madeline Hunter and using Upland School District as a model for processes. The series is planned, conducted and evaluated jointly by district personnel and university faculty, with *district* faculty taking primary responsibility.
3. **Short-term workshops** (several hours to one day) sponsored by either district or university personnel and authorized by a joint planning committee (Inservice Council). These can be proposed by individuals, by a total school faculty or by the Inservice Council itself.
4. Training of selected teachers in "clinical supervision" techniques and providing released time so that these teachers can give assistance to other teachers trying out new approaches in the classroom. The released teachers are part of a **Peer**

Assistance Program in which they are trained for interviewing teachers prior to observing them in the classroom and also are trained in data-gathering techniques for observing classroom instruction and in conducting post-observation helping sessions.

At the heart of these activities is a representative group which plans, oversees and evaluates all staff development. The **Inservice Council** is composed of teacher representatives from four "target schools," building and district administration, community representation and university representation. A majority of the voting members of the Inservice Council are classroom teachers.

A **Community Council,** composed of representatives of all schools in the district, plans and carries out activities designed to increase involvement of parents in school activities, particularly parents of racial/ethnic minority backgrounds.

One additional feature in 1979-80 is formation of a Task Force on School Climate in each of the four target schools. These groups are analyzing results of the Kettering School Climate survey administered in each school in the spring of 1979. The Task Force will examine ways to address areas of "school climate" which they feel need attention in each of their respective schools.

Teacher Corps—Redlands Unified School District/California State College, San Bernardino

The major thrust of Project **RIPPLES** is found in its acronym—**R**enewal and **I**nnovation: **P**rofessionals and **P**arents in **L**earning **E**ffectiveness **S**ystems.

California State College, San Bernardino, Redlands Unified School District and the Redlands Community have joined forces to design a program that will address curriculum needs of grades K–12; that will focus on innovative and meaningful staff development for the I.H.E., L.E.A. and inservice opportunities for the Community Council members; that will support an innovative program for the training of Interns and beginning teachers; and that will utilize the Community Council in building a support system of resources to enhance the learning effectiveness of students in the project schools.

The overall goal of Teacher Corps is to improve the education of low-income children. Project RIPPLES proposes to effect meaningful improvement in school climate through a carefully articulated Educational Personnel Development System. Objectives for both School Climate and Staff Development were integrated to promote a holistic view of the educational process that is too often missing from the traditional hierarchical approach.

Central to this broadened attitude toward education is the concern for student and teacher self-esteem. Enhancement of self-esteem provides the essential ingredient upon which all other staff development and school climate programs in Project RIPPLES are built. Inherent in the connotation affixed to self-esteem is the concept that each individual is worthy of recognition. This concept has promoted the collaborative approach between L.E.A. and I.H.E. toward development of staff training exercises, courses and workshops to meet specific needs. Collaborative planning of goals and training programs will take place between the L.E.A. personnel and the I.H.E. consultants prior to any formalized instruction. Such instruction may, in fact, be offered jointly by I.H.E. and L.E.A. staff, drawing upon identified strengths and formal training.

A conscious attempt was made to coordinate objectives from L.E.A., I.H.E. and Community into a parallel structure, thereby ensuring maximum support and utilization of resources. It is recognized that only through the combined efforts of community and schools will there be any marked improvement in student self-esteem and ultimately in school climate. As an example of such combined effort, in Project RIPPLES the idea of a learning lab is being used as a focus for staff development, student achievement and parent and intern training. Such involvement would entail an integration of pre- and inservice training as Interns and L.E.A. instructional staff would be trained together in the development of self-paced learning modules, diagnostic/prescriptive techniques and in identification of individual student learning styles.

Parents will be trained to work with their individual children, using knowledge they gain from the lab setting. The I.H.E. staff will be able to utilize the training activities and parent workshops as potential field-based research to further program development at the college.

The objectives for Project RIPPLES are written in terms of formal and informal delivery systems. Formal delivery within each objective will concentrate on a small group of participants, who, when fully trained, will then act as trainers for other interested staff. Informal delivery will provide specific training opportunities for teaching staff and classroom aides through seminars, workshops, one-to-one or one-to-small-group peer teaching and role exchanges.

Teacher Corps—San Diego Unified School District/San Diego State University

The San Diego Teacher Corps Project reflects the involvement of a wide cross-section of San Diego Unified School District personnel, San Diego State University faculty and community members. The objectives of the program are designed to develop a collaborative model for educational impact and change.

The feeder system in the San Diego Unified School District includes two elementary schools (Adams and Euclid), one junior high school (Wilson), and one senior high school (Hoover).

The San Diego Unified School District is the second largest school district in the State of California and the ninth largest in the nation. The district has a minority population of approximately 40 percent. A survey of languages spoken by student populations shows 87 different dominant languages in addition to English. The district is committed to the development of quality programs to meet the needs of students, parents and staff.

Established in 1897, San Diego State University has been the major teacher training institution in San Diego County. Growing out of previous Teacher Corps efforts, three model programs now funded by the University are fully individualized and competency-based:

- SIGMA (System for Individually Guiding Mastery Attainment), a preservice elementary certification program; now validated and being disseminated through the National Diffusion Network.
- ARRIBA, a bilingual cross-cultural secondary certification program;
- DELTA (Designing Effective Learning-Teaching Approaches), an on-site inservice master's degree program in elementary or secondary curriculum and instruction.

During 1980-82, four Teacher Corps interns will complete the SIGMA multiple-subjects elementary certification program and a M.A. in Education through the Teacher Corps Project. In addition, a jointly funded component with the Office of Bilingual Education will help the Project develop a credential program for Indo-Chinese interns and aides.

The program hopes to achieve the following outcomes:

- A master plan to coordinate school goals and programs in order to improve school climate;
- Improvement of school community relations through increased parental involvement;
- Increased ability of educational personnel to deal with learner variability;
- Programs to meet the needs of children with learning and/or behavioral problems;
- Programs to promote a multicultural context for teaching and learning;
- Creation of an Institute for Educational Impact (IEI) within the College of Education, San Diego State University;
- Delivery of quality training for teachers, administrators, volunteers, paraprofessionals, and other classified personnel;
- A program of elementary preservice preparation for four interns leading to a basic credential and a master's degree;
- Identification of several interventions with potential for being regularized within the institution;
- Utilization of the constructs of the Change Agent Study as a part of institutionalization;
- Validation and adoption of a minimum of four successful intervention strategies; and
- A plan to study and document the dissemination responsibility of the Teacher Corps project.

Teacher Corps—Berkeley Unified School District/San Francisco State University

The Berkeley Unified School District has joined with the School of Education at San Francisco State University in a staff development program involving five district schools, comprising a K--12 sequence. The focus is a site specific staff development program for teachers and administrators functioning within the project schools. A needs assessment has been conducted at each school site and procedures are currently being developed for meeting the identified needs.

A Community Council consisting of 11 elected parents and members of the community of the project schools has contributed via a plan which allowed for representation on the needs assessment task forces. Additionally, the Council has planned its own activities which will increase its effectiveness as a body responsive to community needs.

The administrators at each one of the project schools have outlined a plan whereby their skills as administrators can be sharpened.

At San Francisco State University, a task force of faculty members representing each of the departments within the School of Education is developing a delivery system that will directly be responsive to the staff development program being planned by the project schools. This task force is also designing a dual

credential and M.A. program for the four student interns who will be with the project during its second and third years.

This program, along with the staff development delivery system, is being designed with the view that they become institutionalized within the School of Education.

Teacher Corps—San Juan Unified School District/California State University, Sacramento

The San Juan Unified School District, California State University, Sacramento, and an elected Community Council are involved in a Teacher Corps project which will:

1. Improve school climate;
2. Establish an improved system for the preservice and inservice education of professional personnel;
3. Institutionalize the project innovations in the schools, community and the university;
4. Disseminate what is learned to other agencies, institutions and communities; and
5. Give special emphasis to education that is multicultural, to improving the competencies of personnel to provide education to children with wide variability in learning needs, and to diagnosis and prescription skills to meet those needs.

The Project Program

The L.E.A., I.H.E. and Community have collaborated to describe school climate as including the following aspects: resources, innovations, communcation, esprit, support, trust, role awareness, and instruction. Under the leadership of the I.H.E., the schools and community have developed an instrument to assess school climate as collaboratively described. The project staff working with building personnel are developing climate interventions. These activities are closely linked to those of the personnel development system.

The personnel development system focuses on the integration of pre- and inservice education of both professional and support personnel. It will include the following:

1. Four interns and 16 selected teachers from the five target schools will go through a Master's in Education program with heavy emphasis on reading and basic skills for students with a wide range of learning needs.
2. Aides, volunteers and parents will be encouraged to attend classes of their interest and particular needs.
3. District teacher-trainers will teach courses to teachers, administrators, interns, aides and parents in Clinical Teaching and Supervision. (These courses will be given outside of school hours and/or delivered to the regular classroom.)

CLINICAL TEACHING/SUPERVISION

Improved instruction through the systematic use of:

- Classroom management techniques
- Instructional objectives
- Complete analysis of learning tasks
- Diagnostic and prescriptive techniques
- Levels of thinking strategies
- Principles of Learning
  - Positive and negative consequences
  - Motivation
  - Retention
  - Transfer
- Lesson analysis and feedback with fellow teachers

Other staff development programs will include:

1. Workshops and programs to be cooperatively developed as ongoing needs assessments indicate.

Examples:

PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT SKILLS

- Effective use of paraprofessionals
- Effective use of learning time
- Record keeping
- Grouping for effective individualization
- Teaching for independent learning and self-control
- Teaching standardized test-taking skills

EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT

- Aide training
- Parent training
- Substitute teacher training
- Student teacher training and supervision

2. Individualized programs for teachers and other educational staff with special needs.
3. Integration of district and university faculty training programs. (University professors have already attended district training in Clinical Teaching with district teachers and administration.)
4. Utilization of L.E.A. staff as adjunct faculty in I.H.E. courses.
5. I.H.E. instructors cooperative and team-teaching university courses, pre- and inservice.
6. Practical experiences for interns in working in the project community.
7. University and district faculty working together on projects to study educational problems and find solutions, e.g., the problems presented in the

learning environment where 50 percent or more of the student population turns over each year.

In the area of organization development leadership education, the following will be implemented:

1. Programs for educators and Community Council dealing with human relations and management of stress related to change.
2. Training in communication skills, conflict management, group problem solving and team development.

Community-based education programs will seek to:

1. Develop and maintain increased parent and community involvement with schools and education.
2. Develop and maintain improved systems of communications between schools, University and community.
3. Provide educational and training opportunities for Teacher Corps Community Council and other project parents and community members.

As the Teacher Corps Project continues into years four and five, goals will include attainment of the following objectives:

1. To imbed throughout the L.E.A., its communities and the I.H.E. Teacher Education Program, successful practices developed in the Project.
2. To demonstrate, disseminate and facilitate adopting/adapting the most outstanding developments to other departments at the I.H.E., satellite schools in the local area and to other school districts, universities and communities.

Teacher Corps—San Jose Unified School District/Stanford University

At the Stanford Teacher Corps Project, the Stanford School of Education faculty, graduate assistants and interns, the staff and students from Anne Darling, Empire Gardens, Peter Burnett and San Jose High schools, and elected representatives from the community work together. These groups work in a number of teams which deal with discipline, math, reading, writing, social studies, multicultural education, physical education, bilingual education, and school management. Each team is composed of a Stanford faculty member, a graduate assistant, school staff and, in some cases, a community member.

The following exemplify some of the efforts and plans engaged in by the project teams:

WRITING. The Writing Team has contracted the services of Bay Area Writing Project, through Title IV-C funds, to provide ten training sessions to teachers from each Teacher Corps school. Each school will have a cadre of two or three teachers who will be trained this summer to be resource teachers next year in their respective schools. Some sessions include information on teaching the reluctant writer, using writing for learning in history, and connections between writing and learning.

SOCIAL STUDIES. The Social Studies Team will help San Jose High and Burnett to maintain communication and ensure articulation through their efforts to design a new ninth grade curriculum at SJHS and a totally new social studies program at Burnett.

MATH. Due to Proposition 13, many of the math teachers at San Jose High and Burnett have not taught math for many years. The Math Team will provide four inservice sessions for teachers on specific topics. The first one will be on teaching fractions. The Math team also expects to recruit math tutors for Burnett and SJHS. Vietnamese tutors have already been contacted.

BILINGUAL. Most teachers are dissatisfied with present tests to place students into ESL and bilingual programs. The Bilingual Team is working on improving placements of students through Stanford-developed tests which measure both communication skills and grammar. Information on these tests will be presented to San Jose High teachers in two workshops.

READING. The Reading Team meets regularly with the reading teachers at Anne Darling, Empire Gardens and San Jose High School to assess the needs of students and to plan workshops for teachers on an on-going basis.

DISCIPLINE. The Discipline Team is investigating the relationship between resources and discipline in the schools. The team has written a paper documenting the problems caused by fewer resources at San Jose High. The paper has been distributed to the Board and District Administrators. The team is also assisting Burnett and SJHS in developing an Independent Study Program. The team will train a small group of Burnett students to conduct workshops on discipline with teachers and parents.

MULTICULTURAL. The Multicultural Team is part of SPICE (Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education) and has materials on Latin America, China, Japan and Africa. The team sponsors assemblies, follow-up lessons and Media Center displays at elementary schools. Additionally, SPICE and the Teacher Corps Team Leader will offer an accredited course on education that is multicultural. Topics include perceptions and misperceptions, language and

communication, migration, family organization and interdependence.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION. The P.E. Team will offer an accredited course at Burnett to help P.E. teachers develop a new curriculum. The team is also assisting staff at Empire Gardens in implementing their new P.E. program, and will train aides to coordinate the program.

ADMINISTRATION. A conference on Building Collegial Teams and Crisis Management was presented for the four principals and their support teams. The teams have continued to work on building team management skills. The project principals are also participating in the Kettering Foundation training for principals. On-site observation and training is also offered.

The project's ongoing operation is run by three committees: the School Steering Committee, the Stanford Steering Committee, and the Community Council. All major budgetary and policy decisions are reviewed by the Policy Board which is composed of three representatives from each committee and includes the Community Council Chairperson, the Dean of the School of Education at Stanford, the Superintendent of San Jose Unified School District, as well as an intern.

In addition to the inservice program, four interns are being trained to become teachers. The interns are working in the community and in all four project schools. They will complete course work at Stanford University in June 1981.

Teacher Corps—Stockton Unified School District/California State College, Stanislaus

The California State College, Stanislaus/Stockton Unified School District Teacher Corps Project is implementing an inservice program developed by teachers, aides, parents and administrators during the 1978-79 planning year. The Project has designed a process for educational personnel to plan their own inservice program in order to improve school climate and to improve the educational personnel development system for those who work with students grades K–1 The Project school sites are Lottie Grunsky Elementary School, Fremont Middle School, and Golden Valley High School.

As a group, the school district, university and the community identified objectives and outcomes desired for the 1979-80 school year as follows:

- Improved school climate through the development of a collaborative planning and problem-solving process.
- Provision of education that is multicultural and knowledge of and sensitivity to the needs of diverse cultures.
- Improved instruction in the Basic Skills of reading, language arts and mathematics.
- Improved classroom management procedures.
- Increasing the quantity and quality of community involvement in the project schools.
- Training and implementation in regard to diagnosis and prescription of learning activities to meet the needs of students with learning and/or behavioral problems.
- Provision of inservice in bilingual education.
- Health education inservice.

Inservice programs were also designed jointly by teachers and school staffs, utilizing the Stockton Inservice Process Guide, for the individual project schools. For example, Fremont Middle School's Inservice Plan includes inservice in stress management, classroom management, multicultural activities, and methods of motivating students. Project participants will also deal with the issues of school climate, parental involvement, and rewards/incentives for staff.

The Project will focus on the institutionalization of multicultural education in the district and university, and the use of the Stockton Inservice Process Guide.

Additionally, four interns will be trained as teachers to work with children in areas having concentrations of low-income families.

Products and/or documents which are available from the Stanislaus/Stockton Project include:

- "Stockton Inservice Process Guide"
- "Community Council Election Process"
- "Classroom Management Assessment Plan"

Teacher Corps—Vallejo City Unified School District/Dominican College

The logo for the Vallejo/Dominican Teacher Corps Project is "Partners in Education." The project represents a three-way partnership between Dominican College, the Vallejo City Unified School District, and an elected Community Council to carry out a five-year project to improve student learning by increasing the competency of adults who work with children in a low-income community.

Dominican College is a small, private, liberal arts college in a middle-class suburban setting. The Vallejo

School District is a medium-sized public school system in a low-income setting. The community is racially, culturally, and socio-economically diverse.

All the project schools are Title I eligible. They are Grace Patterson Elementary School, Franklin Junior High School, and Vallejo Senior High School. Pupil mobility and the enrollment of low-income and minority students are rapidly increasing.

A strong K–12 commitment to staff development exists in the district. The project emphasizes a rigorous training program to improve school climate. The objectives and activities are derived from the research on school climate conducted by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation. The active participation of project school principals is a key element of this project and is supported by a regular training program for site administrators. The daily classroom application of essential teaching skills is also integral to the project.

The personnel development system is based on research conducted by the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Professional Renewal. The project includes model preservice/inservice training programs and a unique internship program. Interns will receive K–12 certification and a Master of Science degree in Education.

The project is designed to maximize the institutionalization of successful innovations. It is based on the ISTE Report I: "Issues to Face" and the "Rand Change Agent Study" which stress a process of mutual adaptation.

Dominican College contributes special expertise in inservice and preservice training and specializes in the areas of diagnosis and prescription and providing for special needs. The partnership with Vallejo is advantageous to Dominican because it broadens the type of preservice activity delivered, such as:

- Practicum and visitation opportunities.
- Placement of student teachers in a multicultural community.
- Courses with multicultural dimensions for IHE faculty.
- Changes in recruitment and admissions processes.

Community Council members contribute a wide variety of expertise about the Vallejo community to both partners. The Community Council, in turn, is able to draw on the resources of both the school district and the college. All three partners are committed to the concept of close collaboration.

California Teacher Corps Network
1979-80 Events Listing

1. **Board of Directors Meetings**
   - August 14-16 ..... Monterey
   - October 25-26 ..... Pajaro Dunes
   - December 10 ..... Washington, D.C.

   Principal Event
   - February 27-29 ..... Menlo Park
   - June 12 ..... Lake Tahoe

2. **Deans Council Meetings**
   - October 18-19 ..... San Francisco

   Regional Workshop
   - March 14 ..... Oakland

   Regional Workshop
   - March 7 ..... San Diego

   Fourth meeting canceled.

3. **Board Executive Committee Meetings**
   - September 13 ..... Sacramento
   - Second Meeting ..... Telephone
   - Third Meeting ..... Telephone
   - April 15 ..... Los Angeles

4. **Deans Council Executive Committee Meetings**
   - September 21 ..... Sacramento
   - April 25 ..... San Diego

5. **Editorial Board Meeting**
   - February 15 ..... San Diego

6. **Educational Policy Seminar**

   (New Directors) Washington, D.C., Canceled

7. **DTA & SRI Orientation**
   - October 4-5 ..... San Diego

8. **Dissemination (Training of Trainers)**
   - November 8-9 ..... Washington, D.C.

9. **CSDE Linkage Meeting**

   Planning Meeting
   - November 28 ..... Sacramento

   Conference
   - January 7-8 ..... Anaheim

10. **Executive Secretaries National Meetings**
    - October 1-3 ..... New York City
    - January 29-30 ..... Seattle
    - March 10-12 ..... Atlanta
    - June 17-19 ..... Washington, D.C.

11. **Other Network Outreach**

    BTES Proposal Reading
    - August 9-10 ..... Sacramento

    San Bernardino Site Visit
    - August 18 ..... San Bernardino

    Community Council Chair Planning
    - September 19 ..... Los Angeles

    Title IVC Meeting
    - September 25-27 ..... San Diego

    San Diego State Site Visit
    - October 18 ..... San Diego

    Comprehensive Reading Program Regional Workshop, SCDE, FWL
    - October 23 ..... San Diego

    San Francisco State Site Visit
    - October 23 ..... San Francisco

    Community Council Chair Training
    - November 27-28 ..... Los Angeles

    San Bernardino State Site Visit
    - January 14 ..... San Bernardino

    CSDE 95-561 Task Force
    - February 1 ..... Sacramento

    San Juan Site Visit
    - February 13 ..... San Juan

    U.A. O.D. Training
    - March 19-21 ..... San Diego

    NCISE/CSDE Principals Training
    - March 20-22 ..... Sacramento

    San Bernardino State Site Visit
    - March 25 ..... San Bernardino

    ACSA Conference
    - March 29-31 ..... San Francisco

    CSDE Leadership Seminars
    - April 17-18 ..... San Diego

    Cal Council Teacher Education
    - April 24-26 ..... San Diego

12. **Network Validation of San Diego Paraprofessional Training**

    Supplicant's Request Approval
    - May 17 ..... Carmel Valley

    Advocate's Visit
    - June 18 ..... San Diego

    Board's Acceptance of Advocate's Report
    - August 14 ..... Monterey

    Outside Validation Agent's Visit
    - March 24-25 ..... San Diego

    Board Final Action
    - June 12 ..... Lake Tahoe

13. **Networker Publication**
    - Submission Deadline ..... January 15
    - Mailing Target Date ..... July 15

14. **Demonstration & Continuation Briefing**
    - December 10-13 ..... Washington, D.C.

15. **Basic Skills Pilot Sites**
    - Organizational Meeting
      - November 15-16 ..... Atlanta
    - Meeting of Cluster
      - December 13 ..... Arlington, Va.
    - Meeting of Cluster
      - February 4-7 ..... Norfolk Va.
    - Kaibeto Visit
      - January 20-22 ..... Kaibeto, Arizona

16. **Board Principals Training**
    - Planned Meeting
      - January 10 ..... Oakland
    - Workshop
      - February 28-29 ..... Menlo Park

17. **Northern Deans Faculty Event**
    - Planned Meeting
      - November 30 ..... Hayward
    - Event
      - March 14 ..... Oakland

18. **Southern Deans Faculty Event**
    - Planned Meeting
      - November 29 ..... San Diego
    - Event
      - March 7 ..... San Diego

19. **Regional Teacher Corps Conference**
    - May 12-15 ..... San Diego

20. **Teacher Corps/Teacher Center Meeting**
    - Planned Meeting
      - May 1 ..... Sacramento
    - Event
      - June 25-26 ..... San Francisco

About the authors . . .

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